


UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH



Darlington Memorial Library



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2009 with funding from
University of Pittsburgh Library System

STRYKER'S AMERICAN REGISTER.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

THE late appearance of this volume is owing partly to a change of business arrangements, and partly to the delay incident to publishing the extensive statistics of the last United States census, which we give so fully as to supersede the necessity of applying to any other quarter, for all ordinary purposes.

Volume Seven is in an advanced state of preparation, and will appear speedily. The subsequent volumes will be published regularly, in due time.

Stryker's

AMERICAN REGISTER

AND

MAGAZINE.

Causas rerum videt, earumque progressus.—CICERO.

Conducted by James Stryker.

1851—VOLUME VI.

arch 31 1869 this — vol. in
Cloth Cost — 4/ur

NEW YORK:
PUBLISHED FOR THE PROPRIETORS,
Sd. AT 290 BROADWAY.

1799

126
AP2
S92
V.6

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1853, by

J. STRYKER & CO.,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States, for the
Southern District of New York.

1851—VOLUME VI

STEREOTYPED BY
THOMAS B. SMITH,
216 William St. N. Y.

PRINTED BY
JOHN F. TROW,
49 Ann St., N. Y.

CONTENTS.

VOL. VI.

HISTORICAL REGISTER OF 1851.

	PAGE
<i>Chap. 1.</i> —The effect of the Compromise Measures—The feeling in Congress—Petitions for the Repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law—Messages of Governors and Action of State Legislatures—The tone of sentiment in the North—Vermont Legislation—The opposers of the law—Opinions of Governors of New York and Pennsylvania—The Southern feeling—Virginia—North Carolina—Mississippi—South Carolina and other States—Letters and opinions of distinguished men—Woodbury—Poinsett—Webster—Clay—The Boston rescue case—Proclamation and message of the President—Debate thereon in the Senate.....	9
<i>Chap. 2.</i> —The Indian tribes in New Mexico, California and Utah—Apaches and Navajos—Hostility to the whites—Depredations of the Indians in California—Battle with them—Alarm of the miners—Troops called out—The Government Commissioners negotiate with the tribes—Meeting of Gov. Calhoun with Indians in New Mexico—Treaties made with the Indians in Oregon—Disturbances in Utah and Texas and in Sonora—The condition of the Indian tribes generally—The policy hitherto adopted—The errors of the system—The condition of the territories—Minnesota—Oregon—New Mexico—Utah—The Mormon manifesto to the saints throughout the World.....	29
<i>Chap. 3.</i> —California—Increase of Gold—Attempt to elect U. S. Senator—Session of the Legislature—Charges against the Members—Character of the emigrants—Lynch Law—Executions—The Apology for self-constituted tribunals—Return to the supremacy of law and good order—Agricultural improvements—California Land Titles—Action of Congress—Bills presented—History of the titles—Objects of the Bills introduced by Messrs. Gwin and Benton—Debates—Reference of the whole matter to Judiciary Committee—Report by Mr. Berrien—Further debates and result.....	40
<i>Chap. 4.</i> —The further doings of Congress—Passage of Bills—Cheap rate of postage—General interest on the subject—House Bill reported, and amendment offered in the Senate—Remarks of Messrs. Seward, Dayton, Rusk—Substance of the Bill as passed—Debates on distribution of the public lands—History of their cession—Conflicting views—The River and Harbor Bill—Its late introduction—Objections to its consideration—The amount of appropriations asked for—Discussion by Messrs. Foote, Bright, Clay, Douglas, Cass, Borland, Davis, &c.—Causes of its failure.....	73
<i>Chap. 5.</i> —New York Legislature—Bill for the enlargement of the canals—Resignation of twelve members of the Senate—Extra session—Constitutional Conventions of Ohio, Maryland, and Virginia—Expedition against Cuba—Arrests of Gen. Henderson, Gen. Quitman and others—Protest of Quitman—Trial of Henderson—Proclamation of the President—Instructions to the Marshal in New York—Arrest of O'Sullivan and others—Hulsemann and Webster—Communication in regard to Kossuth and his companions—Amin Bey and the President—MEXICO—Insurrection in Guanajuato—Inauguration of Arista—Indian depredations—Condition of Yucatan—Financial difficulties of Mexico—Wretched state of the country—Tehuantepec grant annulled—Navarro imprisoned—Defeat of the Indians in Yucatan—Congress convened—Proposal of the Minister of Finance—Railroad from Vera Cruz to Acapulco.....	90
<i>Chap. 6.</i> —Continuance of difficulties in Nicaragua—War between Guatemala	

and the States of San Salvador and Honduras—Advance of Carrera—Impeachment of Vasconcelos, and overtures for peace.—West Indies—Cuba—Arrests at Puerto Principe—Discovery of a secreted printing press—incendiary papers.—Jamaica—cholera there—discussions respecting laborers.—Hayti—conspiracy—interference of foreign powers on behalf of Dominica.—Peru—new President—insurrection—Guano trade.—Brazil—the slave trade.—Argentine Republic, Rosas dictator—his character—disaffection in the interior States—opposition to Rosas—difficulties with Brazil—a league against the dictator—his position and cruelties.—Chili—prosperous condition—revolt suppressed.—Sandwich Islands—first public reception of the U. S. Commissioner—misunderstanding with the French—treaty made.	101
<i>Chap. 7.</i> —Great Britain—Antipapal agitation continues—Views of different parties thereon—Address to Cardinal Wiseman—Effect of the Queen's replies to Addresses—Opening of the new session of Parliament—Ecclesiastical Titles Bill—Lord John Russell's speech—Ministry defeated on the subject of Parliamentary Reform—Views of the Papal aggression in the House of Lords—Unsuccessful effort of the Protectionists in the Commons—Address of the English Catholics to the Queen—Resignation of the Russell ministry—Failure of the Conservatives to form a new ministry, and return of the old to office—Important changes made in the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill—Jew's oath of Abjuration Bill—Address of the English Bishops to their Clergy against novel rites—The Ecclesiastical Titles Bill passes the House of Commons—The World's Fair.	112
<i>Chap. 8.</i> —France—Dissensions between the Executive and Assembly—resignation of the ministry—Changarnier—vote of censure by assembly—new ministry—Archbishop of Paris—dotation bill—protest against demands of Austria—troops in Rome—Prof. Michelet—National Guards—another change in the ministry.—Algeria—President's speech at Dijon—revision of the constitution, &c.—Germany—settlement of the Schleswig and Holstein difficulty—Austrian troops in Hamburg—restoration of the old order of things—Hesse-Cassel—designs of Austria and Prussia—riots, &c.—Prussia—the reactionary party in power—liberty of the Press—the King's speech—new trades law, &c.—Austria—general condition—police—conspiracy—troops sent to Italy—Emperor's visit to Venice—privileges restored—severity at Milan.	122
<i>Chap. 9.</i> —General aspect of the Italian States—Sardinia—Tuscany—Severe measures of the Grand Duke—Treaties of Sardinia—Speech of Marquis d'Azeglio—The French in Rome—Gen. Gemeau fortifies St. Angelo—robberies in the Papal States—Official acts of the Roman government.—Naples—Arbitrary acts of the government—arrests, &c.—Spain—Fall of the Narvaez ministry—Cortes dissolved—address of the Marquis Albayda—liberty of the press—the new Cortes.—Portugal—Insurrection of Saldanha—flight of Thomar—Saldanha's proclamation—is appointed Premier—his measures.—Switzerland—Disturbances in Berne—political refugees—outbreak in Freiburg.	140
<i>Chap. 10.</i> —Russia—The Emperor's policy—Museum—Poland incorporated in the Empire—Circassian war.—Turkey and Egypt—Insurrection in Bosnia and Samos—A firman in favor of Christians—Hungarian refugees—dispute respecting the holy places in Syria—difficulties between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt.—Greece—Robberies—J. W. King, the missionary—succession to the throne—dissolution of the Chambers—Imbecility of the government.—Africa.	153
CHRONICLE OF EVENTS AND OCCURRENCES.	165-206
Among which are—New York Homestead Exemption Law—Woman's Rights—Mariposa Indians—Fugitive Slave Case—Destruction of Pirate Settlement—Choctaw Nation—Extensive Arrest of Desperadoes—Discovery in Africa—Opening of the Erie Railroad—Riot at Hoboken—Bocarmé Trial—Woman's Rights Convention—Maine Liquor Law—Cruelty	

in Italy—Cultivation of the Tea Plant—Jubilee of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel—The Slave Trade—Opening of the Nicaragua Route—Extraordinary Escape, &c., &c.	
AMERICAN OBITUARY NOTICES.....	207
Including Notices of—Hon. Charles Watts—Rev. Walter Colton—John James Audubon—Hon. George McDuffie—Major Noah—Archbishop Eccleston—Commodore Barron—Gen. Herrera—Dr. Morton—Dr. Ross—Gen. Arbuckle, &c., &c.	
FOREIGN OBITUARY NOTICES.....	235
Including Notices of—Dr. Carson—Schumacher—T. S. Davies—Dr. J. Smith—Joanna Baillie—Professor Ørsted—Dr. Reid—Lord Langdale—Lord Cottenham—Lord Melville—Princess D'Elvir—General Uminski, &c., &c.	
SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY NOTICES.....	251
Among which are—Course of the Winds—Origin of Salt and Salt Lakes—Discovery of another Asteroid—Water of the Dead Sea—Dixon's Life of Penn—St. Peter's Chair—New American work on Physical Geography—Pendulum Experiment—Old Red Sandstone—Assyrian Antiquities—Improvement of Propellers—Printing in China—Patent Grist Mill—Action of Waves—New Sounding Instrument, &c., &c.	
STATISTICS :	
Seventh Census of the United States.....	275
Increase per cent. of Inhabitants for sixty years.....	278
Table of Areas and number of Inhabitants per square mile.....	281
Manumitted and fugitive slaves of 1850.....	283
Mortality.....	283
Table of deaths for the year 1850.....	285
Agriculture—manufactures.....	286
The press, newspapers, &c.....	287
Plan of U. S. Census.....	288
Table of population from 1790 to 1850.....	292
“ population, by classes, from 1790 to 1850.....	293
“ population and Representatives.....	294
“ population of principal cities.....	295
“ agricultural productions.....	296
“ cotton goods.....	298
“ pig-iron.....	299
“ woollen goods.....	300
“ Castings.....	301
“ wrought iron.....	302
“ malt and spirituous liquors.....	303
Growth of the North Western States.....	304
Exports of the United States for 1850.....	305
Exports of cotton since 1821.....	307
Whale fishery.....	308
Importations of sperm, whale oil, and whalebone.....	308
Exports of whale oil and whalebone.....	309
Average voyages and cargoes of whale vessels.....	310
Railroads in the United States.....	311
Public lands of the United States.....	311
Lumber trade with Canada.....	312
Ship building in the United States.....	313
Magnetic telegraph.....	313
Statistics relative to New York—ship building.....	314
Comparative view of the imports.....	315
Property to Hudson River by canals in 1849 and 1850.....	316
Forest, agriculture, manufactures, &c.....	317
Statement for 1850—forest, agriculture, manufactures.....	318
Aggregates of 1849 and 1850.....	319

	PAGE
Imports at New York for 1849 to 1851.....	320
Newspapers published in New York State.....	321
Statistics of Boston.....	322
Sugar culture in Louisiana.....	324
Statistics of Pennsylvania—iron, &c.....	326
Steamers, and consumption of coal at San Francisco.....	329
California steamers, Pacific Mail Line, Law's Line.....	330
Ocean steam fleet, mail line for Oregon, inland steam fleet.....	331
Comparative view of United States and British commerce.....	332
Trade of Canada.....	333
British corn trade.....	334
Factories of Great Britain.....	336
Cotton factories, United Kingdom.....	336
Woollen and worsted factories.....	337
Flax and linen factories, silk factories.....	339
General summary, &c.....	340
Steel manufactures of Sheffield.....	342
Cotton statistics of Britain.....	342
Further statistics of Great Britain.....	343
Product of the soil, investment of capital, &c.....	344
Public income and expenditure.....	345
East India Company.....	346
Railroads in Great Britain.....	347
Receipts of British Post-Office.....	349
Tea trade of Shang-Hae.....	349
Exports of tea from Hong-Kong.....	353
Debt of the United States.....	353
Financial condition of the United States in 1851.....	355
Table of Court expenses of the United States.....	356
Estimate of the production of gold.....	358
Importations of precious metals into England in 1850.....	359
Receipts of the United States from 1798 to 1850.....	362
Expenditures " " " ".....	364
Appropriations " " " ".....	366
Mexican mines.....	368
Religious and moral statistics, Am. Miss. Society.....	372
Missionary fields occupied.....	373
Reports of religious institutions.....	373
American Bible Society.....	374
" Home Missionary Society.....	374
" Tract Society.....	375
" Temperance Union.....	376
National Temperance Society.....	377
American Colonization Society.....	378
" and Foreign Christian Union.....	378
" Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.....	379
British and Foreign Bible Society.....	381
Paris Evangelical Missionary Society.....	383
New York common schools.....	384
Free schools in Canada West.....	387
Libraries of the United States.....	388
Military departments and divisions of the United States Army.....	392
Militia of the United States for 1851.....	393
Navy of the " " ".....	394
Vessels of war " " ".....	395
Officers' time of service.....	396
Congress of the United States.....	397
State Governments.....	397
Statistics of surnames.....	398

Mortality at different ages.....	398
Duration of life in Europe.....	399
Paris Dead House.....	400
Suicides in France.....	400
Premature interments in France.....	401
Relative weight of the brain.....	401
Dimensions of the cerebellum.....	403
American Presidents.....	404
United States Armory at Springfield.....	407
ORIGINAL AND SELECTED MISCELLANY:	
The progress of Astronomy.....	415
Ethnology of Hindoostan.....	426
Condition of Japan.....	429
Sketch of Russia.....	426
Origin of Bible Societies.....	444
Guano.....	447
The Hermit Woman.....	450
Ossian's Address to the Sun.....	453
A Moorish execution.....	454
The migration of plants.....	456
Dress.....	458
Australia.....	463
Homer.....	472
Chinese printing.....	475
Consumption, effects of climate.....	476
Mine under the sea.....	478
The Great Indiana Cave.....	479
Jews in China.....	481
Southey the Poet.....	483
Biographical notice of Captain John Smith.....	489
Sketch of Richard Hooker.....	501
A Latin hymn.....	504
DOCUMENTS:	
Proposed Atlantic and Pacific Ship Canal.....	507
Message of the President on the Boston slave case.....	511
Proclamation of the President on the same subject.....	515
Letter from the Secretary of State to the Mayor of Boston on the preceding subject.....	516
Ocean Steamers between California and China.....	518
Correspondence on the Austro-Hungarian question.....	524
Letter of the Secretary of War on the Florida Indians.....	525
Correspondence between the American Minister and British Secretary regarding dues on United States vessels.....	527
Letter from Sec. of Interior regarding the use of public timber by settlers.....	533
Bounty Land Law and the Mexican War.....	535
Proclamation of the President on the Cuban invasion.....	538
Act to found a Military Asylum.....	539
Liberia and slavery.....	541
The whale fishery (official notice).....	545
The Pardoning Power and its abuses.....	552
Opinions of the Judges of New York City on the New York Code of Civil Procedure.....	564
Address from the Delegates of the Southern Rights Association.....	566
Speech of Queen Victoria on opening the Parliament, Feb. 1851.....	571
Views of British Chartist.....	572
Farewell Order of Sir Charles E. Napier.....	579
Act regarding Liabilities of Ship Owners.....	584
Official Circulars to the Creditors of Texas.....	585
Circular of Secretary of the Treasury on Mr. Hunter's Bill.....	589

THE
AMERICAN REGISTER
AND MAGAZINE.

VOLUME VI.

HISTORICAL REGISTER

OF 1851.

UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

The effect of the Compromise Measures—The feeling in Congress—Petitions for the Repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law—Messages of Governors and Action of State Legislatures—The tone of sentiment in the North—Vermont Legislation—The opposers of the law—Opinions of Governors of New York and Pennsylvania—The Southern feeling—Virginia—North Carolina—Mississippi—South Carolina and other States—Letters and opinions of distinguished men—Woodbury—Poinsett—Webster—Clay—The Boston rescue case—Proclamation and message of the President—Debate thereon in the Senate.

THE history of the United States, for the year 1851, is principally marked by the subsidence of the storm that had so fearfully darkened the political horizon, and threatened for awhile to shake the stability of the Union. It gradually became apparent that a large majority of the people acquiesced in the settlement which Congress had made of the vexed questions that so long excited the public mind. Texas had declared herself satisfied with the limits assigned her; California had become a member of the confederacy as a free State; the territories were organized without the Wilmot proviso, which had vanished at the bidding of the genius of compromise; to soothe the North, the slave trade was

abolished in the District of Columbia, and a law providing for the recapture of fugitives from service was yielded to the South. Those that favored these measures thought, therefore, that all which was possible had been done to restore the harmonious action of the confederacy, and to bring together, on a common ground of amity, those who had lately denounced and defied each other. Though in some sections of the country prejudices had taken too deep root to be readily eradicated, and, in others, the hostility to slavery was too fierce to yield to persuasives, yet, for the most part, the results were favorable to peace, and at the commencement of the year the indications to that effect were unmis-takeable, especially at the seat of Government.

The President, upon the re-assembling of Congress, expressed to that body, in strong terms, his approbation of the measures of compromise, promising faithfully to execute the laws; and Congress itself very soon manifested a determination to repress, at the first opportunity, the spirit of agitation. Two instances will suffice to exhibit the mind of the majority.

Early in January, Mr. Julian, of Indiana, presented in the House of Representatives a petition from the Society of Friends in that State, asking the repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law, and declaring the constitution to be an unholy compact, which ought to be dissolved. He gave notice of his intention to move its reference to the proper committee, with instructions to report a bill to carry out the prayer of the petitioners, and, for this purpose, he moved to suspend the rules. The House refused to grant the motion by a very decided vote of yeas 68, nays 119.

Nearly at the same time, a petition was presented in the Senate by Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, numerously signed by citizens of Pennsylvania, praying that Congress would immediately repeal the law for the recapture of fugitives from slavery. Mr. Hale, in making the presentation, remarked that the act was a reproach to the civilization of the age. On motion of Mr. Whitcomb, of Indiana, the petition was laid on the table by a vote of 35 to 16.

Thus, in these instances, the most emphatic intimation was given of the spirit which governed both Houses, proving how fruitless would be the attempt to renew the agitation of the slavery question on the floor of Congress.

The state of feeling throughout the Union at this time, may be gathered from the tone of the executive messages, and the corresponding action of the State legislatures.

In Indiana, Governor Wright strongly recommended a scrupulous fulfilment of all the obligations of the Federal Constitution connected with slavery. In Illinois, Governor French, in his annual message, gave the assurance that the compromise measures

would be faithfully observed and obeyed by the people of Illinois as the only means of restoring and preserving harmony. In New Jersey, Governor Haines alluded to the strong resolutions of Indiana and New Hampshire in favor of the compromise, which resolutions he transmitted in connection with his message, and then remarks:—

“I believe that the citizens of New Jersey accord in the sentiments of these resolutions, and that they ‘will firmly stand by and maintain those measures, regarding them, on the whole, not merely wise and patriotic, but essential to the union, prosperity, peace, and progress of this great confederacy,’ and that they are averse to any further agitation of the exciting topics involved in them. And I submit whether it does not become you, as the representatives of the people of one of the original States—a people eminently patriotic and highly conservative—to express in calm, but firm and explicit terms, these views and your own upon these momentous questions.”

Throughout the Northern, Eastern, and Western States, a similar tone very generally characterized the executive messages and the resolutions of the several legislatures.

The State of Vermont furnished a strong exception. She not only opposed the compromise, but passed a law expressly to protect fugitive slaves, and made it the duty of the State’s attorneys in the several counties to use all lawful means to defend and procure the discharge of every person arrested as a fugitive slave. At page 101 of the 5th vol., the particulars of the act may be found.

For this extraordinary proceeding the legislature of Vermont was severely censured, and having subsequently passed a set of resolutions purporting to be for the promotion of peace, and transmitted them to the other States, the legislature of North Carolina, prior to its adjournment in the early part of 1851, noticed them in the following manner:

“Resolution in relation to the Vermont resolutions, as follows:

“Whereas a message has recently been transmitted to the senate by his excellency David S. Reid, inclosing ‘resolutions for the promotion of peace,’ forwarded by the Governor of Vermont as having passed the legislature of that State; and whereas the legislature of the said State has recently passed an act for the nullification of an act of Congress, passed at its last session, on which the peace and harmony of this Union mainly depended: Therefore,

“*Be it resolved*, That the Governor of this State be requested to send back to the Governor of Vermont the aforesaid ‘resolutions for the promotion of peace,’ with the declaration that North Caro-

lina knows too well what is due to herself to receive from a sister State resolutions of that character, when the State so adopting and transmitting them has been the first in the confederacy to assume to herself the right of violating the constitution of the United States, and bringing into jeopardy the peace and safety of the Union."

There were many in the North, both whig and democrat, who gave to the compromise a reluctant adhesion, not because they objected to all the parts of the compromise scheme, but because they conscientiously believed that some provisions of the Fugitive Slave Law were inexpedient and unjust. They had always contended that such a law should embody provisions that would give to the alleged slave the same rights of trial that other individuals enjoyed. People of this way of thinking were numerous in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Western New York, Massachusetts, &c. They were not willing to cultivate the South at what they considered the expense of a principle. Neither were their impressions of the danger of secession and disunion so strong as those who agreed with Clay and Webster and Cass. They would not, therefore, consent to add their assurances that the law should stand unalterable and fixed. It ought, they said, to be left open to modification at least. But evidently the majority of their fellow-citizens in the North and West appeared to think otherwise, and therefore they agreed to cease from present agitation, and, satisfied with having made their objections against the law when it first went into operation, they interposed no further obstacle to its execution.

Actuated by these and similar opinions seemed to be the Governors of New York and Pennsylvania.

The former, in his annual message to the Legislature of New York on the 1st Jan. 1851, made these remarks in relation to the Fugitive Slave Law:

"It cannot be denied that the recent act of Congress for giving fuller effect to the provisions requiring the return of fugitive slaves has excited dissatisfaction in many portions of the country, carrying them almost to the extreme of threatening resistance to the law. But all good citizens will recollect that, whatever may be their individual feelings or opinions in regard to the policy or propriety of any legislative enactment, it is their plain duty, so long as it remains in force, to sustain the authorities legitimately charged with its execution.

"In the meantime, our people must be left free to examine its provisions and practical operation. Their vital and fundamental right to discuss the merits of this or any other law passed by their representatives constitutes the very basis of our republican system, and can never be surrendered. Any attempt to restrain it would

be far more dangerous than its freest exercise. But in all such discussions we should divest ourselves of sectional or partisan prejudice, and exercise a spirit of comprehensive patriotism, respecting alike the rights of every portion of our common country."

Governor Johnston, of Pennsylvania, after admitting in his message the constitutional right of property in the slave-holder, and in case of escape the right of rendition, and insisting that in Congress alone exists the power of enacting laws to carry into effect the direction of the constitution, proceeds thus :

"The power to act on the subject of the extradition of fugitive slaves being thus vested solely in the national government, it is the plain duty of the citizen to submit to its enactments under the constitution. To act differently would be clearly rebellion to government.

"If the word 'claim' was intended to express an ascertained right of property to the person of the fugitive vested in the claimant, then much of the difficulty surrounding the question is settled, and the mere demand for the person of the fugitive fixes his destiny by the terms of the constitution. His extradition would be determined without proof of ownership on the part of the claimant, and without evidence of the identity or flight of the person claimed. If, however, the term used in the constitution signifies a challenge of the property belonging to the claimant, and withheld from him, and the enactments on the subject requiring proof of right to substantiate the claim, and the concurring decisions of the Supreme Court affix this meaning to the term, then the question arises, How, and through whom, shall the claim be made, and by what evidence sustained ?

"In the adoption of the proper remedy to assert this clear right, patriotic citizens may differ, and the privilege to maintain and express that honest diversity of opinion must not be impaired. To surrender it under violent threats and denunciatory clamor would be an abandonment of the deeply-cherished privilege of liberty of thought and speech. When the enactment of the national Congress fail to convince the people of their justice and propriety, it is their duty to seek their modification and amendment. The recently enacted Fugitive Slave Law, while it remains a statute, demands the support of all the citizens, and unless our written constitutions are worthless parchments, until the judiciary declare it otherwise, must be esteemed a constitutional enactment. Are its defects of such a nature as to warrant the public in urging its amendment ?

"That part of the law which authorizes the creation of a new and irresponsible tribunal under the name of commissioners, is liable to exception. Waiving the inquiry whether the judicial power

of the United States can be vested anywhere but in regularly organized courts, with the records of courts, there are objections of serious import to the institution of this tribunal. All history shows that special tribunals, clothed with discretionary powers over persons and property, are liable to abuse, and have been instruments of oppression."

In the States south of the Potomac the exceptions taken to the settlement of the Texas and Californian questions were very general; and a distrust of Northern sincerity was freely expressed. In some instances they wholly refused at first to concur in the settlement as effected by Congress, and in others they coupled the concurrence with an explicit declaration that their adhesion entirely depended on the maintenance of the Fugitive Slave Law and its efficient execution.

Governor Floyd, of Virginia, addressed the Legislature of his State in these words:

"Virginia, and all the slaveholding States, can and ought, calmly and explicitly to declare that the repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law, or any essential modification of it, is a virtual repeal of the Union. The faithful execution of the law is the only means now left by which the Union can be preserved with honor to ourselves and peace to the country. Such a declaration on the part of the South will give strength and great moral weight to the conservative patriots of the North, now struggling for the constitution and the supremacy of the laws, who are, in truth, fighting the battle of the Union, in the bosom of the non-slaveholding States. If, however, no consideration of prudence or patriotism can restrain the majority from the non-slaveholding States in their headlong career of usurpation and wrong, and should they repeal or essentially modify the Fugitive Slave Law, the most prompt and decisive action will be required at your hands. In either event, I would earnestly recommend that a Convention of the people be called at once to take into consideration the mode and measure of redress, as well as the means of providing for our future security and peace."

In the Senate of North Carolina, the following resolutions were adopted:

"1. *Resolved*, That, in the opinion of this general assembly, North Carolina is deeply devoted to the Union of the States, and will to the utmost endeavor to preserve and perpetuate it, as long as the Union itself shall secure the great and beneficent purposes for which it was formed. [Unanimously.]

"2. *Resolved*, That while we do not approve of all the provisions of the Compromise by Congress, called the Adjustment, still, from a fraternal spirit of forbearance towards our brethren in the non-slaveholding States, and a sincere and heartfelt attachment, to

the Union, we are willing to acquiesce in said compromise, *honestly and faithfully* carried out. [Unanimously.]

"3. *Resolved*, That, while we are disposed to accept the said compromise as the *work of peace*, we deem it a sacred duty to warn the people of the free States against any further encroachments upon our rights, and to declare explicitly that, in the opinion of this general assembly, North Carolina *would and ought* to regard as entirely inconsistent with her maintainance of the Union the *abolition* of slavery in the District of Columbia by Congress *without the consent* of the slaveholding States, and incompatible with their safety and interest; *or any act of Congress* prohibiting the citizens of one slaveholding State from removing their slaves to any other slaveholding State; or a refusal by Congress to admit into the Union as a State any Territory belonging to the United States, on account of the existence of domestic slavery within its limits; or any act applying the dangerous and mischievous principle of the *Wilmot Proviso* to the territories of Utah and New Mexico; or *any act* which repeals the recent act for the reclamation of fugitive slaves, or so modifies the same as essentially to impair its efficiency and usefulness. [Yeas 33, nays 12.]"

Such was the general tone of sentiment expressed by State governments south of the Potomac. In Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, &c., where assents were given, similar views were entertained, modified, it is true, in some cases, but in all making the efficient execution of the slave law the test of good faith in the North, and the condition of union. But when it became manifest to all candid men that there was a determined spirit existing in the northern States that would, as far as possible, sustain southern claimants in effecting the recapture of their slaves, then the asperity of feeling gradually wore away. So that in Georgia, where, except in South Carolina, the deepest hostility to a peaceful settlement seemed for awhile to exist, in an election held for delegates to a convention to be assembled to consider the momentous question of union, there was found to be a popular majority of 30,000 votes in favor of union on the basis of the Compromise.

In Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee and Texas, the expressions in favor of the compromise measures were very decided, and the current of popular opinion evidently exhibited a willingness to abide by them. There were also those both North and South, as is well known, who advocated extreme measures. Gen. Quitman of Mississippi, in his message to the Legislature, recommended a convention to be called for the purpose of demanding concessions of California and an alteration of the constitution to secure the slaveholding States from aggression, and if this demand was not granted them, to secede from the Union.

The struggle between those who were termed Unionists and Disunionists then began in that State, and the result was the triumph of the former and the election of Gen. Foote governor, who, in the Senate of the United States, had been one of the most zealous in favor of the Compromise.

In South Carolina, too, secession was openly talked of. It was currently reported that a project was on foot to form a southern confederacy, and that an offer was made to Virginia to head the movement.* Yet even in this State, the most infected with ultra doctrines, more sober counsels prevailed, and the South Carolina Convention, after passing resolutions declarative of their right to secede, then rested, without any further attempt to agitate the subject of dissolution.

So, too, in the North, the ultra-abolitionists were violent, even to the shedding of blood, in their first efforts to resist the execution of the slave-law, and in some cases successful in forcibly rescuing the parties claimed,† yet were finally compelled by the

* Subsequently, the Virginia House of Delegates almost unanimously passed a set of resolutions declining to co-operate with the Legislature of South Carolina in convening a Southern Congress "to be entrusted with full power to resist aggression, &c."

The 1st resolution sympathized with South Carolina, but declares that Virginia will take no step calculated to destroy the integrity of the Union.

The 2d resolution was as follows: "That, regarding the said acts of the Congress of the United States, taken together, as an adjustment of the exciting questions to which they relate, and cherishing the hope that, if fairly executed, they will restore to the country that harmony and confidence which of late have been so unhappily disturbed, the State of Virginia deems it unwise (in the present condition of the country) to send delegates to the proposed Southern Congress.—[Ayes 110, noes 3.]"

The 3d was in these words: "That Virginia earnestly and affectionately appeals to her sister State of South Carolina to desist from any meditated secession upon her part, which cannot but tend to the destruction of the Union, and the loss to all of the States of the benefits that spring from it.—[Ayes 114, noes 1.]"

The 4th and 5th expressed the belief that the constitution, if faithfully administered, provides adequate protection for the rights of all, but protested against any legislation by Congress affecting the peculiar institutions of the South.

† On the 14th of February, 1851, the Commissioner of the Circuit Court of the United States, at Boston, issued a warrant for the arrest of Shadrack Winkley, an alleged fugitive slave from Virginia. On the 15th the case was heard on the part of the claimant, but at the request of the counsel of the defendant, the further hearing was adjourned to the 18th inst. On the adjourned day the investigation proceeded, and the claimants made out their proofs. During the first part of the hearing the court-room was much crowded, but a Mr. Riley, who with Mr. Warren, the Deputy Marshal, had the arrangements in charge, (the marshal, it is said, refused or neglected to attend) succeeded in keeping off the mob for awhile. Afterwards Mr. Warren was dispatched by Mr. Riley to Commodore Downs to know if he could detain Shadrack in the Navy Yard, there being a law of the State of Massachusetts, passed in 1843, prohibiting the use of the jails for the detention of fugitive slaves; and the Commodore replied that he was not authorized to use the yard for such a purpose.

Having no other place within his control, Mr. Riley decided to retain Shadrack in the court-room, agreeing to allow his counsel access to him. This was the state of affairs inside, about ten minutes before two o'clock. From the court-room door on the outside, down the stairs, and winding round to the northwest door of the court-

force of public sentiment to yield to the lawful exercise of authority.

Much of the effect produced towards a settlement of the public mind, and the restoration of harmony and better feeling, both in the North and South, was owing to the efforts, example, and appeals of distinguished citizens, well-known in the councils of the government.

Hon. Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire, former Secretary of the Treasury during the administration of Gen. Jackson, wrote a letter presenting the subject to his fellow-citizens in a very strong light.

Without more forbearance in regard to the agitation of the Slavery question, it was his solemn conviction that the Union would be placed in fearful jeopardy. An alarming sign of the times was, that any portion of a law-abiding community should either recommend resistance to the laws, or actually participate in measures designed to overawe the constituted authorities, and defeat the execution of legal precepts issued by those authorities. This, he said, was in direct hostility to the injunctions of Washington, in his Farewell Address; and no less hostile and derogatory to every sound principle for sustaining public order and obedience to what the legislative agents of the people and the States have enacted.

Joel R. Poinsett, of South Carolina, Secretary of War in the Cabinet of Jackson, and well known for his gallant exhibition, many years since, of the American flag in the City of Mexico, addressed the citizens of his State in an earnest remonstrance against the schemes of secession which they seemed inclined to adopt. He vindicated the compromise measures, and insisted that there is no such thing under the constitution as secession. He urged that the best interests of the State depended upon the

house, and standing in the street, was a dense crowd of colored people, and it was somewhat difficult to work a passage through them. About ten minutes to two, the court-room was opened to let out Charles G. Davis, one of the counsel, and Mr. Wright, and, before it could be closed, some of the colored people outside made fast to it and held it open, while the others rushed into the court-room, throwing down the officers, who were attempting to pull the door to, and made for Shadrack.

Mr. Riley, who was jammed into the corner near the door, called upon his assistants to resist the rescuers; but their numbers were too great, and they dragged Shadrack out in a few seconds. One of the assistants managed to get hold of the marshal's sword, but a portion of the rescuers hugged him round the body, thus fastening his arms, and the sword was dropped in the struggle. A colored man carried the sword into the street, where he gave it up to a young man named Hosea, who was not aware that it had been taken from the court. The rescuers ran with Shadrack to Butolph-street, and from thence it is supposed that he was conveyed in a cab over Cambridge bridge. The whole affair did not occupy over five minutes.

The President of the U. S., on hearing the facts, immediately issued a proclamation expressing his disapprobation of the affair, and calling on the authorities and citizens to aid in enforcing the law.

maintenance of the Union, and exhorted them not to take a step that would involve South Carolina in ruin.

Daniel Webster who contributed to the case the whole weight of his talents and influence, wrote to the people of Virginia on the subject:—"Political martyrdom," he wrote, "would be preferable to beholding the voluntary dismemberment of this glorious Republic. It is better to die while the honor of the country is untarnished, and the flag of the Union still flying over our heads, than to live to behold that honor gone forever, and that flag prostrate in the dust." He assured them, from personal observation at the North, that through the masses of the Northern people the general feeling and the great cry is, for the Union and for its preservation: and, "while there prevails a general purpose to maintain the Union as it is, that purpose embraces, as its just and necessary means, a firm resolution of supporting the rights of all the States, precisely as they stand guaranteed and secured by the Constitution. And you may depend upon it," he added, "that every provision in that instrument in favor of the rights of Virginia and the other Southern States, and every constitutional act of Congress, passed to uphold and enforce those rights, will be upheld and maintained not only by the power of the law, but also by the prevailing influence of public opinion. Accidents may occur to defeat the execution of a law in a particular instance; misguided men may, it is possible, sometimes enable others to elude the claims of justice and the rights founded in solemn constitutional compact, but, on the whole, and in the end, the law will be executed and obeyed; the South will see that there is principle and and patriotism, good sense and honesty, in the general minds of the North; and that among the great mass of intelligent citizens in that quarter, the general disposition to ask for justice is not stronger than the disposition to grant it to others."

In a letter written to his fellow-citizens in the North, he alludes, as Judge Woodbury had done, to the disposition which was abroad to evade the laws, and to resist them so far as it could be done consistently with personal safety. This disposition, as well as the opinion entertained by some individuals to judge of their rights and duties under the constitution by a rule of their own, he denounced as at war with all government and all morality.

"It is time," he continued, "that discord and animosity should cease. It is time that a better understanding and more friendly sentiments were revived between the North and the South. And I am sure that all wise and good men will see the propriety of forbearing from renewing agitation by attempts to repeal the late measures, or any of them. I do not see that they contain unconstitutional or alarming principles, or that they forbode the inflict-

tion of wrong or injury. When real and actual evil arises, if it shall arise, the laws ought to be amended or repealed; but in the absence of imminent danger, I see no reason at present for renewed controversy or contention."

That venerable and distinguished statesman, Henry Clay, addressed the Legislature of Kentucky by invitation, and entered at length into the history of the Compromise Measures, and their effect upon the country. He afterwards went on to say, that it was not to be expected that these measures would lead to immediate and general acquiescence on the part of the ultras of either section; but he confidently anticipated, that all their mad efforts would be put down by the intelligence, the patriotism, and the love of union of the people of the various States. He drew a picture of the condition of the country, and especially of the slaveholding States, in the event of a dissolution of the Union. Under the present law the South will not probably recover all their fugitive slaves; but they will recover some of them. But in the event of disunion not one could be demanded. He had often been asked when he would consent to a dissolution of the Union. He answered *Never*, because he could conceive of no possible contingency that would make it for the interest and happiness of the people to break up this glorious confederacy. He would yield to it, if Congress were to usurp a power, which he was sure, it never would, of abolishing slavery within the States, for in the contingency of such a usurpation we should be in a better condition as to slavery out of the Union than in it. He believed that the time would come, at some very distant day, when the density of the population of the United States would be so great that free labor would be cheaper than slave labor, and that then the slaves would be set free; and that Africa would be competent to receive, by colonization from America, all the descendants of its own race.

If the agitation of this subject should be continued, it must lead to the formation of two parties—one for the Union and the other against it. If such a division should become necessary, he announced himself a member of the Union party whatever might be its elements.

He then remarked:—"I go yet a step further: if I am alive, I will give my humble support for the Presidency to that man, to whatever party he may belong, who is uncontaminated by fanaticism, rather than to one who, crying out all the time and aloud that he is a Whig, maintains doctrines utterly subversive of the Constitution and Union." Mr. Clay said that the events of the last few months had thrown together men of opposite parties, and he could say with truth and pleasure, that during the late session

he was in conference quite as often, if not oftener, with Democrats than Whigs; and he "found in the Democratic party quite as much patriotism, devotion to the Union, honor, and probity as in the other party."

These and similar addresses from Lewis Cass, W. R. King, Rufus Choate, D. S. Dickinson, and many other distinguished men, contributed largely, as we believe, to produce the reaction in the public mind.

We conclude this chapter, upon a subject so momentous to the Union, with a sketch of the debate in the Senate of the United States, upon the message of the President, and the accompanying documents, in relation to the slave rescue case in Boston, the particulars of which we have given in a note on a former page.

The message of the President having been read, in which he stated the rescue of the fugitive slave, Shadrack, from the officers of justice in a court-house in Boston by a mob of people of color, and the steps which he had taken in consequence thereof, Mr. Clay, of Kentucky, arose and expressed his satisfaction at the reading of the letter of the President, which announces his resolution to carry into effect and execution the laws of the United States. He also expressed his satisfaction in seeing the generally faithful execution of the slave law, and then said:

"It has been executed in Indiana under circumstances, really, of great embarrassment and doubt, but promptly executed. It has been executed in Ohio in repeated instances. It has been executed in the State of Pennsylvania—at the seat of government of Pennsylvania, and at the great metropolis of Pennsylvania. It has been executed in the great metropolis of the Union—New York—I believe upon more than one occasion. It has been executed everywhere except in the city of Boston, and there has been a failure there upon two occasions to execute the law. I confess, sir, that when I heard of the first failure I was most anxious to hear of the case of another arrest of a fugitive slave in Boston, that the experiment might be again made, and that it might be satisfactorily ascertained whether the law could or could not be executed in the city of Boston. It was therefore, with profound surprise and regret that I heard of the recent occurrence, in which the law had been again treated with contempt, and the court-house of the country violated by an invasion of a lawless force."

Mr. Clay, after some further remarks on the propriety of using military force to enforce the execution of the law, moved the reference of the message and documents to the Judiciary Committee.

Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, ridiculed the idea of the President of the United States "calling upon the military and naval

force of the government to hold themselves in readiness, and upon all officers and good citizens everywhere to defend this great republic against a handful of negroes in Boston."

Mr. Mason, of Virginia, declared that the fugitive slave law had not answered the end for which it was intended. In relation to the conduct of Massachusetts in the matter of fugitive slaves, Mr. M. thus spoke:

"Sir, the Honorable Senator from Kentucky, (Mr. Clay), in the denunciations which I was gratified and pleased to hear him level against the toleration of this high offence in the city of Boston, if he will allow me to say so, did not go far enough. I have gone one step further. I have denounced the State of Massachusetts for being false to her federal obligations. I say, sir, false to her federal obligations; for she is a party to this compact, in which she agreed to have a consideration that fugitives of this character should be delivered up. What is her law? Her law, as I have said, not only refuses to give the use of the jails for the detention of these fugitives, but makes it penal upon any officers of the Commonwealth whatever to arrest, or detain, or to aid or abet in arresting or detaining fugitives. Sir, the honorable senator from Kentucky should have gone to the State of Massachusetts—gone to the offence where it exists, in the law-making power—as well as to denounce this rabble of negroes who had it in their power to commit this breach of the peace within the limits of the State, tolerated, if not encouraged, by their statutes. I have sent for the law, sir. The second section, to which the President has adverted, is in these words:

"No sheriff, deputy sheriff, coroner, constable, jailer, or other officer of this Commonwealth, shall hereafter arrest or detain, or aid in the arrest or detention, or imprisonment in any jail or other building belonging to this Commonwealth, or to any county, city, or town thereof, of any person for the reason that he is claimed as a fugitive slave.'"

Mr. Mason also intimated that the law had not and could not be carried into effect so as to be beneficial to the claimants of fugitives, and went on to remark upon the several cases that had already occurred. He referred particularly to the delay in the case of Long, in New York.

Mr. Dickinson, of New York, in answer, spoke as follows:

"All recovery of property, under any law, is subject to controversy and to contestation. If there were to be no contestation over the country no law would be necessary. If individuals are to have the power to go and take what they claim—if the principle was to be, let him get who can—no law would be necessary. But every law supposes that there will be more or less contesta-

tion. Now, in this case, where the delay is complained of, the senator says that the only fruits of the law were lost. That depends entirely upon what this individual values his time at. He was there about ten days; his own expenses were paid; the most eminent counsel that the city and State of New York afford was furnished him free of expense; he was entertained free of expense, and lost nothing but his own time—that is some ten days. If that was more than the value of the slave, why, then, he went back without the fruits of what he sought.

“But a portion of that delay was caused by the declaration of the claimant himself, that he wished the matter fully and fairly tested, as it was a case under the new law, and excited so much of the public attention—and he wished every fair facility given to have the law fairly tried.”

Mr. Clay also insisted in opposition to Mr. Mason that the law had been faithfully executed in every place where a case had occurred, except in Boston, and then said:

“Mr. President, one word more only with respect to this isolated mob. Do you ever see, sir, the abolition papers from Boston and other quarters of the country? Do you not see a declaration that within the limits of Massachusetts the fugitive slave law shall never be executed? Do you not see that advice is given to the blacks to arm themselves, and to murder the first person, or kill the first person that attempts to arrest them—to take them back to that service from which they have fled?”

Mr. Butler, of S. C., regarded this negro case as a sign of the times; that the abolitionist power is increasing, and will come down upon the Southern States with the certainty of a descending screw.

Mr. Davis, of Massachusetts, defended the people of his State from the aspersions cast upon them. He insisted that the facts of the case had not been properly reported. The rescue was not made by citizens of Boston. It might easily have been prevented had the proper precautions been taken by the deputy marshal, who behaved pusillanimously. He said that the citizens of Boston were true to the Constitution and true to the Union, and this transaction furnished no evidence to the contrary.

He explained how the law in relation to prisons came to be enacted:

“But the honorable senator from Virginia says that Massachusetts should be denounced as having failed to fulfil her federal obligations. In what, sir? Why, because she passed a law some seven years ago, from which he read a paragraph or two, in relation to the use of her prisons, and the employment of the State officers to execute the laws of the United States. But before ac-

quiescing in the justice of this charge, let us understand what Massachusetts has done in regard to the restoration of fugitive slaves. She undertook, like most, if not all the States, to carry out the resolution of Congress passed in 1789, interpreting the constitution on this point. She considered this clause in the constitution, by its own terms, and by the resolution of 1789, as imposing a duty on the State to legislate for the return of fugitive slaves. She did legislate for that purpose in good faith, and at the time the Supreme Court, in *Prigg vs. Pennsylvania*, declared her laws and the laws of other States unconstitutional, her statutes were in full force, and she had executed them, as far as I know, in connection with the law of the United States in 1793. When the constitutional authority declared that she had no power on this subject, then she changed her system of legislation.

"Now, while I do not approve, in my own judgment, the extent to which her act was carried, I must say, in reply to the senator from Virginia, that I see no obligation, except an obligation of courtesy, on the part of the State of Massachusetts, to employ her officers, or her prisons, or her legislation, to execute or carry into effect a provision confined exclusively to the United States. The power of interference as a State had been denied to her by the competent tribunals of the country; and there were, as you know, sir, and as others know, at that time, other causes working, which no doubt might by possibility have created, to some extent, a spirit of resentment; if it be so, it is to be regretted, whatever and however unjust the provocation. I do not think, then, that in this there is any proof of a want of attachment to the Union, or any violation on the part of the State of her obligations. The United States had said that it was their duty, and their duty alone, to execute this provision of the constitution, and the States have no power, no control over it. I think that that was a pretty clear hint, to say the least, that they would take their own business into their own hands, and manage it in their way, regardless of the States. What was left to the State, then, but to repeal her laws? They were a dead letter on the statute-book, because they had been declared so to be. There might have been some want of courtesy, perhaps, in denying the use of her prisons, in denying the use of her officers; but I think even the senator from Virginia will not question the right so to do, nor will he infer from it any violation of federal obligation whatever. Then, what becomes of the declaration of the senator from Virginia that Massachusetts has been false to her federal obligations?"

Gen. Cass, of Michigan, made some remarks upon the execution of the law, in answer to Mr. Mason:

"I rose principally to say that I regret to have heard the re-

marks of the senator from Virginia. He will permit me to say that I cannot see any good that will result from that strain of observation. I do not see any use in a member of this senate getting up and announcing to the public that the law will not be executed. It does no good; and I believe myself, as one, that the senator is totally mistaken. Why will it not be executed? The honorable senator from Virginia says that the people will not join in the execution of it—that the people are opposed to it. What does the honorable senator mean by that? He does not mean that every man in Massachusetts should voluntarily get up and assist in the recapture of a fugitive. He does not mean that, of course. If the constitution is carried out in good faith, and the owner of the slave or his agent is clothed with all the necessary power or authority, that is all you can ask of the legislative department of the government; and all you can ask of the executive department is, that neither the owners nor its officers should be interfered with or resisted in the execution of the power given them by the law and by the constitution. But it is said that the people are opposed to the law. That is no objection to the validity of the law, nor to its due execution. Opinion is one thing and actual resistance another. The withholding of this voluntary action does not constitute reasonable ground for saying that the law will never be executed. The public sentiment in Massachusetts upon this subject is as unfortunate as it is wroug. No man deplores it more than I do; but I believe the law will be executed there, and wherever the flag of the Union waves. That is my firm belief. No man has a right to doubt it till the subject has been fairly tried. A wonderful change in public sentiment has taken place. It is going on, and will go onward until the great object is accomplished. We see it at the North; we see it at the West, and all around us; and we cannot mistake it. As my friend from New York very truly and impressively stated, the decision in the city of New York in the case of Long has been of great value towards carrying into effect the provisions of the constitution in relation to this subject. Its imposing manner, the length of time taken to argue it, leaving everything free to be discussed for and against the law, and finally the delivering up by the officers of the United States, aided by the police of the city, of the fugitive, was a beautiful trial of public opinion, and an illustration of the effect of this law, and has been felt throughout this Union, from one end of it to the other. Let us try the law, and not denounce it beforehand. These foreboding predictions do no good. It is not surprising, after the wonderful agitation through which we have passed, that the waves do not instantly subside."

The debate now took a wide range, it being contended by Messrs.

Butler, Badger, Borland, Turney, and Rhett, that the fugitive-slave law had not been executed in good faith, and by Messrs. Downs, Clemens, Dodge, and others, that it had been so to the utmost that any law of a similar kind could, under the circumstances, be expected to be executed. Mr. Chase, of Ohio, also joined in the debate. Mr. Dodge of Iowa remarked:

"I did not understand the senator as censuring or impugning the motives of any one, but as animadverting upon the measures generally as unjust to his section of the Union. On the other side they are attacked no less vigorously by the senator from Ohio. He says he thinks they will fail, and that they have signally failed to produce the result which was intended by those who voted for them. In that he perfectly coincides with the senator from Arkansas (Mr. Borland), and the senator from Tennessee (Mr. Turney). I do not know that those measures are destined to effect the good results which those who voted for them intended; but I think they have done good, are doing good, and should be religiously lived up to and carried out in good faith. I believe there is a greatly improved state of feeling in the country, and that the great body of the people are for adhering to the compromises, both of the constitution and of the last session. I am one of those who believe that the President of the United States, in his efforts to enforce the law, has done and is now doing his duty to the country.

"I deny, for Boston and for Massachusetts, that those who trample under foot the laws of the United States—whether the laws of the last session or of any other session of Congress—represent the public sentiment of Massachusetts. If I were to assume to speak for a people of whom I know little, and for whom I have no right to speak, I would rather assume that that collection of citizens—mob, or what not—at Springfield, in Massachusetts, who properly insulted and outraged that minion, that myrmidon of Great Britain, who has had the hardihood and audacity to make his appearance in this country and go about lecturing upon the evils of American slavery, represented the feelings of that ancient and most respectable Commonwealth. Let him show his face in Iowa—let him show his face in Illinois, and we will see whether he will not be summarily dealt with, if his object be to traduce our Government and to overthrow our Union, or endanger the peace and quiet of the people of any of the States. We do not, and, I trust, never shall, forget the obligations of the constitution of our country. We do not forget the fact that domestic slavery at one time existed in all the States, and that the people of those States have the right to do what they please in relation to it. Above all, the safety, the welfare, and well-being of those who own this property, are dear to me and my constituents."

The debate was further continued by Messrs. Douglas, Cass, Berrien, Downs, Davis of Mississippi, and Clay.

Mr. Davis, in the course of his remarks, alluded to the sentiment of his State on the question of dissolution.

"My friend says he does not believe my own State is in favor of dissolution. Who does? Who ever said Mississippi desired to dissolve the Union? In Mississippi it has been spoken of but as an alternative, a last resource, and a remedy to which they would resort only when they were bound as freemen to surrender their inheritance, or adopt the last argument in order to maintain their constitutional rights. That they have said, and that I believe they will do. You would not, throughout the length and breadth of the State, find a corporal's guard who desire to destroy the Union of the Constitution—the Union as it was formed by, the Union as transmitted from their revolutionary sires. They speak of dissolution as the result of a violation of constitutional rights, and thus only—of secession as the alternative of submission to usurpation and degrading aggression."

Mr. Clay remarked upon the effects of the compromise measures in quieting the public mind:

"Mr. President, the Senator from Ohio told us that the Compromise of the last session, which it was promised would bring peace and tranquility throughout the land, has effected no such thing. Why, sir, so far as relates to the Wilmot Proviso, there is quiet; so far as relates to the admission of California, there is quiet; so far as relates to the settlement of the Texas boundary, there is quiet; so far as relates to the abolition of the slave trade in this District, I have not heard a single voice complaining of it. Only one topic remains, and, sir, that has wrought wonders. At the last session the honorable Senator, and others who concurred with him in the opinion, and expected a vast and boundless fund of agitation if the Compromise measures were passed—why, instead of that, sir, they have been themselves reduced to peace. The Senator at the last session was an agitator, and at this he cries for peace. Why, sir, it has worked a miracle. It has made thousands of converts amongst the abolitionists themselves; and not one of them has arisen from this floor, or I believe on the floor of the other House—if he did, he was instantly repelled—even to move a repeal of a measure, by the by, which the honorable Senator from South Carolina (Mr. Rhett) thinks unconstitutional. He ought to move its repeal. I was surprised that he did not conclude with the motion to repeal that law. Now, sir, peace has been produced to an extent even surpassing my most sanguine anticipations. There was an exception made to the universality of peace, as it was predicted at the last session by almost all its

friends. We said ultra abolitionists would not be tranquillized. We said they would go on and agitate."

After the debate had closed the question was taken on the motion to refer the President's message to the Committee on the Judiciary, and it was agreed to—yeas 34, nays none—as follows :

Yeas—Messrs. Baldwin, Bell, Berrien, Borland, Bradbury, Clarke, Clay, Davis of Massachusetts, Davis of Mississippi, Dawson, Dickinson, Dodge of Iowa, Douglas, Downs, Greene, Gwin, Hunter, Jones, King, Mason, Miller, Norris, Pearce, Rantoul, Rusk, Seward, Shields, Smith, Spruance, Turney, Underwood, Wales, Walker, and Whitecomb—34.

Nays—None.

The Judiciary Committee, to whom the subject was thus referred, differed upon the question of the President's powers in such a case, and made two reports. Here, as far as the action of Congress went, the whole matter rested, and no further movement in relation to it was made in either body.* The sensation produced by the account of the rescue, and the President's proclamation and message, was strong enough to create a long and excited debate; but not sufficiently strong to cause the subject to be renewed. The "sober second thought" came in to present the whole matter in its true light; all were convinced that the prevailing public sentiment in the North and West was favorable to the enforcement of the law, and by common consent the agitation of the slavery question ceased in Congress.

CHAPTER II.

The Indian tribes in New Mexico, California and Utah—Apaches and Navajos—Hostility to the whites—Depredations of the Indians in California—Battle with them—Alarm of the miners—Troops called out—The Government Commissioners negotiate with the tribes—Meeting of Gov. Calhoun with Indians in New Mexico—Treaties made with the Indians in Oregon—Disturbances in Utah and Texas and in Sonora—The condition of the Indian tribes generally—The policy hitherto adopted—The errors of the system—The condition of the Territories—Minnesota—Oregon—New Mexico—Utah—The Mormon manifesto to the saints throughout the World.

The Indian tribes who live in New Mexico, California, Utah and Oregon, continued to harass and plunder the white inhabitants, and emigrants resorting thither.

* The President, a short time after this debate, received from the Mayor of Boston official copies of the orders and resolves of the city government of Boston, from which it appeared that measures had been taken by the authorities of that city against the occurrence of any further outrages similar to the Shadrack rescue case, which was an entire surprise upon the citizens and the authorities. This communication was answered by Mr. Webster, the Secretary of State, expressing in a very appropriate manner the confidence of the President that a great majority of the people of Boston were loyal to the Constitution, and would faithfully and fearlessly discharge all their duties as citizens.

The robberies which they had committed on emigrants making the overland journey, had furnished many of the tribes with plenty of stock, which they had exchanged for fire-arms. They had stolen besides, many rifles, and were thus in most instances well-armed. The Indians in those regions are very numerous. The principal tribes in New Mexico, are the Apaches and Navajos, who are amongst the most powerful and warlike in North America. They are expert horsemen; their mountain ponies travel over the rocks and mountains like goats, and it is, therefore, almost impossible to overtake them. They can also, when retreating from or riding furiously towards an enemy, discharge their rifles or their arrows with great precision. The Navajos are settled from 150 to 200 miles southwest of Santa Fe, in what is reported to be a beautiful and fertile country, where large crops of Indian corn are raised.

Of all the savage tribes of the West, the Indians of New Mexico are the most treacherous and unscrupulous about violating treaties. They look upon the whites as their enemies, whose troops and emigrants have destroyed their grass and timber in forcing their way over the country, and whose settlements in the plains and valleys have driven off the game from the old grounds, whence they have taken their supplies. Reasoning, as the Indians have reasoned ever since our ancestors came to this continent, they hope to save themselves and to restore the old condition of things by reprisals or by exterminating the intruders.*

The mountain tribes in California seemed to have been incited by similar motives to assail the whites. They spread through the mountains between the waters of the Tuolumne and the head waters of the San Joaquin, and having formed intercommunications through the passes, to enable them to concentrate the greater part of their forces upon whatever point they might be attacked, they commenced depredations upon the miners and squatters in good earnest. Almost every animal on the Tuolumne and Mercede was stolen, and there seemed to be security for neither life nor property. Several companies were driven from the upper bars of the South Fork of the American river, and some of them were badly wounded. Similar outrages were constantly perpetrated.

* The Commissioner of Indian Affairs in his report complained of the extraordinary state of things which existed in the Territory of New Mexico. He stated that within its limits are thirty thousand Indians, for the most part wild and intractable. For many years they have been in the habit of making extensive forays, not only within the territory itself, but in the adjoining provinces of Mexico, plundering and murdering the inhabitants, carrying off stock, besides captives, whom they subject to slavery and treat with great barbarity. Our citizens have suffered severely from their outrages. They attacked the party of a Mr. White, travelling to Santa Fe, murdering them all, nine or ten in number, except his wife, child, and servant, whom they carried into slavery. Their atrocities are also committed on the Pueblo Indians, a semi-civilized people living in villages called *pueblos*, whence they derive their name.

A man of the name of Savage had established several trading posts on the outskirts of the Mariposa County. One of these was burnt by the Indians, property destroyed to the amount of eight thousand dollars, and three men killed. An account of the retaliation inflicted by Savage and his friends upon the Indians was contained in the California papers of January:—

“A company of seventy-five men, well equipped, started from Agua Frio, under the guidance of Major Burney and Savage. After travelling some distance the company was divided into two bodies, one having charge of the provisions and baggage, who were directed to encamp, while the others pushed on in search of the Indians. The latter division, forty-five in number, continued on the trail till dusk, when Savage told them he heard Indians singing, and said it would not be safe to advance any further.

“They then crept along very cautiously a little further, in their stocking feet, and laid down for the night, arranging themselves in a suitable manner for defence. With the first glimmer of light next morning they saw an Indian on the hill top acting as sentinel. But, as they remained perfectly quiet, he was unable to detect the nature of the objects before him until the light became stronger, and then he suddenly gave a whoop. Instantly the Americans sprang to their feet, and rushed toward the rancheria.

“It was a vast basin in the top of a mountain, with walls almost perpendicular, down which large and loose rocks could be rolled upon an army of assailants, so as completely to prevent them from climbing the steep and rugged sides. But the Americans gained the heights before the alarm had been sufficiently given, and then ensued a most ferocious engagement, which lasted three hours and a half. Forty-four of the Indians were killed and the rancheria fired. The screeching that followed was described as most heart-rending; and there can be little doubt that many of the old women and children were burnt to death. The loss on the American side was one killed, one mortally wounded, and five or six others more or less injured.

“This rancheria is described as the largest ever yet discovered in California, covering about four acres with the houses or huts. Several tribes were collected together, and the number of braves present at the engagement was from four to five hundred. The location of this rancheria was on the Irisno, about forty miles from Savage's camp, just at the commencement of the snows in the mountains.”

After the engagement, the Americans retired to a temporary fortification erected about four miles from the scene of the contest. Some of the Indians afterwards boasted that they could raise several thousand braves; and that all the Indians from Oregon to

the Colorado were leagued together, and had sworn eternal enmity to the whites.

The miners in all sections of the country left their work and flocked to Agua Frio for protection; and there was organized at that place a company of one hundred and fifty men, ready to march against the enemy as soon as they could be provided with ammunition and other necessities by the government. As an Indian war seemed almost inevitable, the State authorities made every effort to meet the emergency. A bill was introduced in the Legislature to raise a loan for the public defence. Two hundred men were placed under the command of a competent officer. Gen. Persifer Smith who commanded the U. S. troops, ordered all the disposable forces along the coast to rendezvous at San Francisco, to act in case of necessity; and a government transport was placed in San Joaquin, just above the mouth of the Tuolumne River from whence supplies were to be drawn for the expedition.

Before, however, proceeding to extremities, it was determined to try the effect of negotiations, for it was admitted that in many instances the whites had been the aggressors and by their ill-conduct had increased the hostile disposition of the Indians. It was also believed, that it would be difficult for the State to negotiate a loan to carry on the war. Accordingly, commissioners* on the part of the United States, attended by an escort of one hundred soldiers, left Stockton early in February, to repair to the scene of the disturbances.

Contrary to the general expectation in San Francisco, the Commissioners succeeded in making treaties with the principal tribes: The conditions generally were that the Indians should have a certain range of country for hunting and fishing, free from any encroachment from the whites, and that every tribe was to be supplied with a competent man to instruct them in agriculture and gardening, with teachers, blacksmiths and carpenters, and also to receive seeds, horses, cattle, ploughs, axes, hoes, clothing materials, flour, and other goods.

Col. McKee made such treaties with the Syantes, Potoyantes, Cocoons, Apangasses, part of the Apaches and Awallaches, to whom was assigned a territory between the Merced and Tuolumne Rivers. These, as we noticed before, were the dread and annoyance of the miners and squatters round the Merced and Mariposa. The tribes were well satisfied with the treaties; and some of the old Indians laughed outright. They said they were "mad,

* Three Indian Agents were appointed for California, but after their appointment it was discovered that no appropriation had been made for the purpose. They were, therefore, continued in office as commissioners to negotiate treaties.

crazy with joy," that good white men had come at last, who would agree that the Indians had a right to live somewhere. Similar treaties were made by Col. Barbour in the South, and by Dr. Wozencraft with those of the Sacramento Valley. The number of tribes included in the treaties made by these gentlemen amounted to about fifteen.

Depredations continued to be committed by the Indians in New Mexico. The Apaches, however, were so severely punished for the share they took in these misdeeds that they became anxious for peace. Accordingly, a delegation of six chiefs from the Jecarilla and Mescalero tribes came to Santa Fe in March, with the intention, as they said, of making a permanent treaty of peace, and obtaining a donation of public lands for cultivation. For this purpose they had a meeting with Governor Calhoun.* The interview was going on prosperously, and the arrangements almost concluded, when an express arrived with the intelligence that Chacon, the head Chief had been brought to Albuquerque by Lt. Holliday of the dragoons, and waited the orders of the commanding officer, Col. Monroe. This was the Chief who commanded the party that murdered Mrs. White at the Point of Rocks,

* The following dialogue took place at the meeting.

"We are Apaches of the Jecarillas and Mescaleros. Our Chiefs are rulers, as our Father is. All our people are south of the Rio Pecos. We come to see our Father, to know if he is pleased with us."

The Governor replied that he was glad to see them; told them not to fear, but to speak boldly, and he would send them back safe to their lodges.

"We come to talk to our Father," was the reply; "we have no fear."

Being interrogated as to the events at Point of Rocks, Wagon Mound, &c., they answered, "We do not know who killed our Father's children, or ran off with the mules." The Jecarillas were at that time in the White Mountains.

On being asked as to the number of captives among them, the reply was, "The Mexican chief (meaning the interpreter) knows what captives we have—no Mexicans, no Americans. We do not lie to our Father, we tell one story."

The dialogue then went on as follows:

"Why do the Apaches come to us now?"

"We want peace. We come to make a chain of peace."

"How many warriors have the Apaches?"

"The Jecarillas have many lodges."

"Have the Chiefs here power to treat for the tribes?"

"We have power to speak for the Apaches; not for other nations."

"What will the Chiefs do? Will they build lodges, sow the ground, and live in fixed limits?"

"If the rest of the tribes will make Pueblos, we will be glad. We will go and talk with our old men and Chiefs."

"The Chiefs have power. Will they make a treaty now? Will they sign a paper?"

After this question there was a silence among the deputation for twenty minutes; then a protracted conversation among themselves. At last they said:

"We will speak with our nation, then come to you with many Chiefs. We wanted to make peace at Vegas, but the people made war. We now come to our Father. We come to know what he wants. If he says we must be killed, we die. If he tells us to kill for him, we will do it. We will sign the paper for the Apaches."

as mentioned in our fourth volume. Chacon was now brought to Santa Fe, and a treaty was made with the tribes, according to their desire; and they stipulated to deliver up all the stolen goods among them. As an earnest of their intention to fulfil their stipulations, they delivered up to the Governor an American refugee named Anderson, who had formerly killed a Mexican in a quarrel, and after being arrested on a charge of murder, had fled to the Apaches, by whom he had been elected a chief. Notwithstanding this, they re-commenced their ravages within two months.

About the same time, Governor Calhoun issued a proclamation, calling for volunteer companies to protect the territory from future incursions by the Indians; for the Navajos still continued to commit frequent depredations. He directed that the property captured from any hostile tribe of Indians should be disposed of in accordance with the laws and customs heretofore existing in the territory, until legislative action could be had on the subject, either by Congress or the Territorial Assembly. He also reminded volunteers of the laws against any invasion of the property of peaceable subjects of the territory, and stated that they should be strictly enforced.

The Indian tribes in Oregon, as we have stated in a former volume, had committed many outrages upon the settlers and encountered them in several battles.* Negotiations were at last opened with them by Governor Gaines, Colonel Allen, and Judge Skinner, Commissioners on the part of the United States, and treaties concluded with several of the tribes. These gentlemen succeeded in purchasing of the Callapooahs, a tract of land eighty miles long and from fifteen to twenty miles wide, on the Malala River, and the western side of the Willamette Valley. The terms were, \$2,500 annually, for twenty years, partly in cash and partly in goods. By another treaty with the Indians of Tuality Plains, about one million of acres was purchased in the same valley, to the north of the Yamhill River, for \$20,000, payable like the other, in twenty annual instalments. Lands were reserved in both cases, which were considered amply sufficient for the Indians, many of whom have already learned farming, and cultivate extensive fields. The lands ceded by the above treaties are considered among the best in the Willamette Valley. There had been some thoughts of removing the Indians to the east of the Cascade Mountains; but they were extremely averse to such a step. They said that was the land of their fathers, beside whom they wished to be buried, and the place of their own nativity; that they were

* At the session of 1851, Congress passed an act adjusting the expenses of the Indian War in Oregon.

ignorant of the country beyond the mountains, and unacquainted with any other mode of life except that which they now followed, and that it would be more humane in the whites to kill them off at once than to drive them beyond the mountains.

The commissioners represented to them the advantages of having a portion of the purchase money of their land appropriated to the establishment of schools and the procuring of farming implements; but they all refused to have any portion of it expended on schools; and the Tualities alone consented to allow a small sum to be expended on implements of husbandry. Notwithstanding this backwardness, they appeared anxious to adopt the habits of civilized life. Many of them had been accustomed to work for the whites, during several years, and they had been found useful servants. They received a fair compensation for their labor, and learned the value of money pretty accurately. The commissioners were of opinion that the best plan for civilizing and enlightening these Indians, was to allow them to remain in the vicinity of the settlers and to be employed by them in their various labors.

The Indians in Utah appear to be generally peaceable in their dispositions, and easily controlled. In one instance they made a foray upon one of the settlements; but they were driven off by a detachment under Gen. Eldridge.

But in Texas the ravages of the Indians were nearly as extensive as in New Mexico. They killed several whites near San Patricio, and committed great depredations in the vicinity of Goliad. They also murdered a company of Californian emigrants on the road between Laredo and San Antonio. To stop these ravages, a strong volunteer force under Capt. Brady proceeded against the Indians, and on the 26th of April, they encountered a body of the Camanches, all of whom they killed or captured, except five, besides taking their camp equipage.

The Indian relations in Texas were at this period in an awkward and embarrassing state, owing to the fact that the laws of the United States providing for the regulation of trade and commerce with the Indian tribes were not in force in Texas, nor was it the opinion of the government that they could be extended there without the consent of the State.

Until this difficulty should be removed commissioners could not be appointed to negotiate with them.

It may be mentioned in this place that these same savage tribes made inroads also upon the defenceless towns within the adjoining Mexican territory.

In February, the commander of the colony of Tuscon, in Sonora, informed the government that the savages, to the number

of three hundred men, armed with rifles obtained from the United States, in exchange for the cattle they steal, were in the neighborhood. There was no cavalry to pursue them, nor resources sufficient to hold out against them long. Unless succors were sent, the town would be abandoned and a great part of the State of Sonora left defenceless.

To remedy these evils a memoir was presented by the Secretary of War and Marine, in which the importance of establishing military colonies on the frontiers was urged with various arguments. Some account of the colonies, already founded, was given—one of them at El Paso del Norte, and another at Piedros Negras, both on the frontiers of the United States. Near the former is the civil colony of Guadalupe, formed by the emigrants from New Mexico, who recently left that territory.

The Minister of War recommended that the agricultural Indians, such as the Seminoles, who are accustomed to the use of arms, and who evince a desire to possess fixed habitations, be incorporated with military colonies, and made to serve as a protection against the marauding and barbarous tribes, as the Camanches, the Lipans, the Apaches, and others.

With the exception of the marauding and hostile tribes whose character and conduct have been exhibited in the preceding pages we have, in the annual statement made by the government officers at this time, a very decided satisfaction expressed as to the condition, behaviour, and prospects of the Indians within the wide limits of the United States.

These official reports stated that there was evidence of the meliorating effects of the policy of the government, and of the existence of a peaceful and quiet disposition. But notwithstanding these flattering and general expressions, the facts as reported hardly seem to have warranted them, if we except the Creeks and Cherokees, those southern colonized tribes who have adopted the religion, improvements, and manners of the whites, their republican institutions, and written laws.

It is true that the Six Nations of Indians in New York, had abolished their oligarchical form of government under chiefs—had formed a constitution and assumed a position at their principal Cattaraugus settlement, something similar to that of the southern colonies. But a large portion of them never yielded their assent to this new government; and, in fact, their constitution as to its practical operation soon became a dead letter. The most intelligent class among them consisted principally of the recusant chiefs and their adherents; and they can maintain their influence and authority, whether the government recognise them or not. The great mass of those Indians are poor, and dependent

on their chiefs—they are clannish in their habits, and closely surrounded by whites, who advise and influence them just as their interest dictates.

The Society of Friends, who have a large school among them, have doubtless made strong efforts to engraft on them the habits and principles of civilized life, and conscientiously labored for their good. But it is very problematical whether Quaker influence, however meritoriously exerted, is best suited to the Indian, whose wily and crafty nature, and deep-seated passions, imbibe with difficulty the lessons of his rigid and scrupulous teachers. Should this remnant of the old confederacy ever become, under the tuition of the new government, gentle, amiable, and laborious, no longer wandering, but oblivious of all their old habits, and traditions, discarding all the ties of clan, the customs and rights of their ancestors, then they will be Indians no longer, and they must necessarily become mixed up with their white neighbors, their lands portioned off into towns and counties, and after a few years, as property changes hands, and the whites predominate, their name and their place known no more.

The Winnebagoes were removed by the government to lands set apart for them on the west side of the Mississippi, but the official report states that "as usual with the Winnebagoes, in whatever situation placed, a considerable number of them have been restless and discontented in their new location." This has arisen "less from a well-grounded objection to the country, than to their own reckless disposition and vagrant habits." Indeed the government had great difficulty in effecting their removal, some remained behind, whilst others eluded the agent and returned, causing great alarm among the inhabitants by their threats and depredations.

The tribes of the Menomonies, Stockbridge, and Munsees were all to be removed to the country west of the Mississippi. But apprehensions were entertained respecting the ultimate safety of these Indians, and it was suggested care should be taken that they did not suffer from their contiguity with more warlike and barbarous tribes, or "were swept away by the mighty and advancing current of civilization." The question was seriously entertained whether, if they remained in the homes then destined for them, for any length of time, they would not be finally overrun and exterminated; "or, uprooted and broken-spirited, be driven forth to perish amidst savage enemies on the plains, or in the Rocky Mountains."

The Sioux and the Chippewas were represented as hereditary enemies, and scenes of bloody strife occurred frequently among them. "Each tribe," said the report, "seems to be constantly on

the watch for occasions to attack weaker portions of the other, when an indiscriminate massacre of men, women, and children is the lamentable result." Negotiations were in progress with the Sioux for a portion of their lands, and it was contemplated to concentrate the tribe within narrower limits, upon lands remote from the white settlements and the Chippewas.

Measures were taken, also, for the removal of the Chippewas from the lands ceded to them in 1837 and 1842, east of the Mississippi, in Wisconsin and Minnesota. They were considered to be in too close proximity to the whites, and to the facilities for obtaining ardent spirits, by means of which they had become greatly injured and corrupted.

Judging from the statement thus given of the condition of the various tribes, after so many years of experience and so much money expended in the purchase of their lands and for their benefit, it is impossible to come to the conclusion that the best policy has been pursued in relation to them. A writer on this subject remarks:—"There has been too much sympathy expressed, and too little real sympathy practised. There have been too many parties in interest, and too many plans proposed and adopted. Every new Commissioner of Indian Affairs has different views from his successor, has to study the Indian relations for himself; and by the time he begins to know something about them, and to be able to form a correct line of policy, he is removed to make room for a successor. We are not certain but what, if the whole Indian office, with all its expensive array and details, its speculations and inefficient action, were entirely abolished, the tribes would not be vastly better off. Then let a system for their settlement and government be drawn up by a commission, consisting of Gen. Cass and other practical men, intelligent in Indian affairs—let their places of abode be judiciously and unalterably fixed—provide them with implements of husbandry, arms, food, and clothes from the avails of the annuities. Establish military posts for their protection; keep them confined within their limits; and give them, under proper regulations, the benefits of education and religion. They would need no agents, except persons assigned to furnish them with goods, and the reports of their condition would come to their Great Father the President from their principal chiefs, and the commanders of posts." A bold and decided, yet benign policy similar to this, adopted at once in relation to all the tribes, and when adopted, carried out vigorously and with the whole power of the government, would, it seems to us, settle within a year the interests and the destiny of these original possessors of the soil, and save us from the reproach which their gradual and melancholy extermination must entail upon the American people.

The several territories pertaining to the Union, with the exception of New Mexico, seem to have been at this period in a flourishing condition. The reports from Minnesota and Oregon were of the most flattering kind. Settlers were coming in, and the improvements every year made, were adding to their growth and strength. The former, with a very severe climate in the winter, has its attractions for the speculator and the agriculturist; and portions of the latter, especially the beautiful and luxuriant valley of the Willamette, are described as among the most desirable points of emigration in the far west. Except for two or three months during the winter, the climate of Oregon is said to be delightful; and in the valleys, from April to September, the whole surface of the uncultivated lands is covered with flowers. The new capital of this territory is located at Salem.

The territory of New Mexico has exhibited but feeble signs of progress in the extension of agriculture and trade. One favorable symptom, however, appeared. A contract was made by the government agents for one million pounds of flour, for the use of the army; and it was thought that the amount would be easily furnished by the three flour-mills then in operation in the territory. A branch of trade, too, had sprung up in the export of sheep to California, which promised to be profitable, but was attended with many risks.

In Utah, the seat of the Mormons, everything was prosperous. The peculiar institutions of that remarkable people seem to have presented no obstacle to their progress.

Early in the spring, the leaders of the Mormons issued a manifesto, which they called their *Fifth General Epistle*, addressed to the Saints throughout the world. It traced the history and rapid spread of Mormonism, from which, and the convulsions prevalent among nations and governments, they argued the near approach of the Messiah, and the unusual ascendancy of their church. It hailed with pleasure the advent of the new U. S. Government, and declare that the elders would always submit to it, wherever they might be. It directed the English Mormons to cease emigrating through the States, and remain where they were until they received further notice, as it was the intention of the elders to open a way across the interior of the continent by Panama, Tehuantepec, or some of the interior routes, and land them at San Diego; and thus save a long inland navigation, exposed to a sickly climate. The Mormons in the United States and Canada were urged to go to the territory at once, by the old route, north of the Platte River, and to bring with them plenty of nails and labor-saving machinery.

The epistle also mentions the progress that had been made in

the new settlement. A Council-House had been erected, and a Tithing Store House was in progress; a pottery establishment was nearly completed; and the Saints expected to manufacture their own china-ware very soon. Woollen and cotton factories had also been commenced, with good hopes of success. School-houses had been built in most of the wards, and the capital fenced into blocks. Measures had also been adopted to prevent the depredations of Californian emigrants. The General Assembly had appointed Governor Young to receive the \$20,000 appropriated by Congress for the erection of a State-house in the territory, and directed that the edifice be located in the Salt Lake City.

The Epistle gave a magnificent view of the operations of their emissaries, and the spread of the Mormon creed throughout the world. One of the apostles was on his way to the Society and Sandwich Islands, and Chili. The work was reported to be very prosperous in the Society Islands. Another was at Boulogne, in France, preaching, translating, and publishing. Another, having visited the Italian States, was located in Piedmont. E. Snow was at Copenhagen, translating the Book of Mormon, and the work was prospering in Scandinavia, Germany, and the surrounding countries. An elder was presiding over the church in the British Isles, and had an office at Liverpool. Information also was given that a new colony had been formed in Iron County, about 250 miles south of Salt Lake City, where extensive beds of iron ore had been discovered, which the colonists intended to work.

The General Assembly of Deseret adjourned without a day, on the 5th of April, having previously passed resolutions accepting of the legislation of Congress in the act establishing a territorial government for Utah.

CHAPTER III.

California—Increase of Gold—Attempt to elect U. S. Senator—Session of the Legislature—Charges against the Members—Character of the emigrants—Lynch Law—Executions—The apology for self-constituted tribunals—Return to the supremacy of law and good order—Agricultural improvements—California Land Titles—Action of Congress—Bills presented—History of the titles—Objects of the Bills introduced by Messrs. Gwin and Benton—Debates—Reference of the whole matter to Judiciary Committee—Report by Mr. Berrien—Further debates and result.

THE recently acquired and rapidly-increasing State of California, which had already obtained a world-wide notoriety, continued to attract the earnest attention of adventurers and to receive large accessions of population. American, English, French, Germans,

Chilians, Mexicans, and the far distant Chinese, flocked thither to gather the precious dust. A new stimulus was given to emigration, early in the year, by the discovery of supposed rich placers in the country adjoining the Klamath River, especially on its tributaries, Scott and Simon Creeks, also in Snow range near Feather River, and in Shusta Valley. At the same time it was reported that very valuable discoveries of gold had been made near the sea-coast, at the mouth of the Klamath. The "Gold Bluffs," as they are called, are about thirty miles north of Trinidad, and present to the ocean a perpendicular front of from one to four hundred feet, extending to the distance of six miles. The golden sands brought thence surpassed in richness any yet seen. It was estimated that from the first discovery of gold in California, to the 1st of April, 1851, nearly one hundred millions of dollars' worth of the metal had been yielded by all the mines in the State.*

An attempt was made in February to elect a United States' Senator, in the place of Col. Fremont. The principal candidates were J. C. Fremont, Judge Hegdenfeldt, John B. Weller, and T. Butler King: but after 142 ballotings, it was ascertained that neither of them could obtain the requisite number of votes. The Legislature then deferred further action on the subject, until the 1st of January, 1852. That body adjourned on the last day of April, after a session of four months.

They had passed an act making Vallejo the capital of the State, another exempting homesteads and other property from forced sales in certain cases, and also a usury law, fixing the rate of interest, except in special cases, at ten per cent.

* The following table furnishes, probably, an accurate account of the shipments for one year and a-half:—

SHIPMENT OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA.—The Baltimore American is indebted to Messrs. WINTER & LATIMER, of San Francisco, for the annexed authentic statement of the amount of gold shipped from California, from its first discovery, in 1849, to the present time:—

Gold dust shipped by steamers, from 1st April, 1849, to 31st December, 1850	\$34,570,255
Estimated to have been taken by passengers	4,571,500
Shipped to foreign Pacific ports and to Europe, coined, manufactured into jewelry in California, and forwarded per sailing vessels, as per custom-house reports	4,576,042
Carried overland and coastwise by miners from Mexico, Chili, and Oregon, shipped by merchants without manifest entry, and amount at present in possession of miners, merchants, &c.	19,000,000
	62,717,797
In the above estimate the value of gold dust has been computed at \$16 per ounce, troy. To this amount should be added \$1.50, the mint value, say	5,869,794
Total	\$68,587,591

During the session, a committee was appointed to investigate certain charges of venality and corruption against the members; but the effort to substantiate them was abortive, as all the principal witnesses had absconded. Many of the members were also accused of improper conduct in other particulars; and it was currently asserted that, the elections having been left to the management of a few intriguing and designing men, the incompetency and corruption of a portion of those chosen was a natural consequence.

The new accessions to the rapidly-increasing population of California were not all of the most desirable kind.

Among many hardy and industrious adventurers came also many who left their former abodes, because they were too indolent, unprincipled, or improvident to succeed at home, led to this modern El Dorado, by the *auri sacra fames*, and the hopes of availing themselves of the fruits of better men's toils, without giving a corresponding value in return. There were gamblers and sharpers from the Atlantic States, and a large accession of burglars, pick-pockets, incendiaries, and swindlers from various parts of Europe, America, and Asia, with escaped convicts from the British penal colonies of Australia.

At the same time the eager pursuit of business and their different vocations, by the moral and industrious portion of the community, left everything pertaining to the administration of justice in arrear. In such a state of society, severe laws rigorously administered are requisite, in order to check crime, and secure life and property. But the circumstances just mentioned, and the recent establishment of the Constitution and State Government, prevented such measures. Hence, crime of various kinds abounded. A great part of San Francisco, the principal town in the State, was repeatedly reduced to ashes; and it was suspected, not without some good grounds, that these fires were, at least in part, the work of incendiaries, who expected to plunder during the conflagration. At Stockton and Nevada, also, there were destructive fires. Thefts and robberies were frequent; and scenes of bloodshed and murder were not rare occurrences. Sometimes desperate encounters occurred in gambling-houses, oftentimes between Americans and foreigners, principally Chilians and Mexicans. The border marauders from Mexico were ever ready to seize the first opportunity for rapine or murder. There was every facility to commit crimes, and no sufficient legal safeguard—the law loosely administered—no effective prisons or guards, and hence, it was hardly to be wondered at that the people, especially in the interior, should return to the rigid code which they had adopted in the early state of California society; short accounts with offenders and speedy settlements. The governor, too, it was

thought, was ever ready to use his constitutional right of pardoning convicted criminals, or commuting their sentences; and this led to several cases of summary vengeance on the objects of executive clemency. In other cases, the supposed offender was tried summarily by a jury appointed by the people, who heard testimony, and whose verdict was quickly executed, whether it was death, banishment, or scourging. Five Mexicans were thus condemned to death for stealing cattle and horses, in the San Joaquin Valley. The jury found them guilty of the acts, but left the sentence to the people present, who unanimously voted that they should be executed in twenty-fours; and they were hanged accordingly.

In most of the cases the individuals thus summarily executed either confessed their guilt, or the facts were strongly against them. The parties who took the law into their own hands appeared to act from a conviction of duty, and conducted their proceedings coolly and deliberately, examining witnesses, admitting counsel, and giving to the trial the semblance of an impartial hearing. Still, however, the experiment was a hazardous one. Summary and irregular proceedings in the nature of lynch law are liable to be controlled by the momentary passions and prejudices of those concerned in them, rather than by a regard to justice and the real merits of the case; and their existence is, therefore, generally to be dreaded as the precursor of evils of greater magnitude.

This does not, however, seem to have been the result in California, judging from the fact, that in the course of the season, many settlers removed their families thither, with the view of making it their permanent home.

Another pleasing sign of improvement was the increased attention paid to agriculture. The productiveness of the soil and the excellence of the climate, render a great part of California well adapted for tillage and grazing, and the products of the land can be readily disposed of at high prices. Therefore, many preferred farming and gardening to the more perilous and exciting operations in the mines.* To add to this better state of things, San

* Some agricultural facts may not be uninteresting in this place. In the rich valleys, good farming lands could be bought for ten dollars per acre. Any amount of stock could be raised, for the cattle do not need foddering in the winter; the hills are covered with wild oats. A statement was given of what was done in the raising of crops, by Mr. Hosmer, at the mission of St. Jose, forty miles from San Francisco, which seems almost incredible. From 130 acres of potatoes he raised 35,000 bushels; from four acres of onions, 40,000 pounds; from 15 acres, 40,000 cabbages; and so of tomatoes and pumpkins, and that, at the high prices which produce then brought, his whole crop was worth more than \$200,000.

So forward is the season, that on the 1st of March of this year, in a field of 35 acres of barley, near San Francisco, the grain averaged ten inches in height.

Francisco and the principal towns were soon flooded with merchandize, which contributed to diminish the expenses of living.

The subject of the Land Titles in California, had, at a prior session, been submitted to Congress by Col. Fremont, the senator from that State, who introduced a bill for their speedy adjustment. His colleague, Senator Gwin, afterwards offered an amendment, which, in fact, amounted to another and a different bill. The Senate resolved to act upon the amendment, and owing to the absence of Col. Fremont (who was detained in California by sickness) when the subject came up for consideration, his father-in-law, Senator Benton, of Missouri, took the matter in charge, and offered to amend the bill of Mr. Gwin, by another, containing the main provisions of the original bill of Col. Fremont.

The field for discussion being thus opened, a series of debates ensued, perhaps the most elaborate and interesting which occurred during that session of Congress.

The history of the Land Titles in California commences with the early occupation of the country nearly one hundred years ago.

The first settlements in Alta-California, were made by Roman Catholic Missionaries in 1769, at San Diego, who, after laboring assiduously several years, had founded several missions, to which large domains were attached through the favor of the Spanish Viceroy, and which were entirely under the control of the priests. These missions were gradually extended to nineteen, and embraced within them immense tracks of land. The boundaries were very uncertain, the lands being described as lying between certain hills and rivers, or embracing certain plains. The mission lands of San Antonio contained two hundred and twenty-five square leagues, and that of San Miguel five hundred and thirty-two. The others varied from twenty to one hundred leagues. It was computed, that the original mission lands amounted to eight millions of acres, and that about five millions had been disposed of by sales and grants.*

* "The history of the original foundation of the missions is one of remarkable interest. Through the perseverance and self-denying labors of a few Catholic priests alone, the natives, not only of the peninsula and the coast, as far north as San Francisco bay, but the extensive provinces of Sonora and Sinaloa, were taught the arts of civilized life, and subjected to the dominion of Spain. The lives of Padres Kino, Salvatiera, and Urgarte, exhibit instances of danger, adventure, and heroic endurance scarcely inferior to those of Cortez and Coronada. The great work they accomplished on the peninsula and in the northern provinces of Mexico, in the beginning of the last century, was followed fifty years later by Padre Junipero Serra, who, in 1769, founded the mission of San Diego, the first settlement in Alta California. In the succeeding year, he landed at Monterey, and by a solemn mass, which was performed under an oak tree, still standing near the fort, took possession of the spot. After laboring for thirteen years with indefatigable zeal and activity, during which time he founded nine missions, the good padre died in 1784, and was buried in the

The first authority for granting land to actual settlers or colonists other than missionaries, was contained in the instructions given to the commandant of the new establishments "of San Diego and Monterey," the 17th August, 1773, by which he was empowered to designate common lands, and to grant titles to individuals whether Indians or new settlers, in the vicinity of the missions or pueblos (villages). He could, if he pleased, change the mission into a pueblo.* On the 21st September, 1774, the viceroy wrote to the commandant granting permission to the

graveyard of Carmel. His successors continued the work, and by the year 1800, had increased the number of missions to sixteen. Since that time only three more have been added.

"The missions are named and located as follows:—San Rafael and San Francisco Solano, north of San Francisco bay; Dolores, near San Francisco; Santa Clara and San Jose, near Pueblo San Jose; San Juan, Santa Cruz, and Carmel, near Monterey; Soledad, San Antonio, and San Miguel, in the valley of Salinas river; San Luis Obispo; La Purisima, Santa Ynez, Santa Barbara, and San Buenaventura, near Santa Barbara; San Gabriel and San Fernando, near Los Angeles; and San Luis Rey, San Juan Capistrano, and San Diego, on the coast south of Los Angeles.

"The wealth and power in the possession of these missions naturally excited the jealousy of government, after California was organized into a Territory. The padres, however, had been granted almost unlimited privileges by the earlier viceroys, and for a long time no authority could be found to dispossess them. A decree of the Spanish Cortes, in 1813, relating to the missions of South America, was made the basis of repeated attempts to overthrow the temporal power of the padres, but without effect; and from 1800 to 1830, they revelled securely in the full enjoyment of their wealthy establishments.

"That, indeed, was *their* age of gold—a right bounteous and prosperous time, towards which many of the Californians, and even of the old American residents, look back with regret. Then each mission was a little principality, with its hundred thousand acres and its twenty thousand head of cattle. All the Indian population, except the 'Gentiles' of the mountains, were the subjects of the padres, cultivating for them their broad lands, and reverencing them with the same devout faith as they did the patron saint of the settlement. The spacious galleries, halls, and court-yards of the missions exhibited every sign of order and good government, and from the long rows of adobe houses flanking them an obedient crowd came forth at the sound of morning and evening chimes. The tables of the padres were laden with the finest fruits and vegetables from their thrifty gardens and orchards, and flasks of excellent wine from their own vineyards. The stranger who came that way was entertained with a lavish hospitality, for which recompense was proudly refused, and on leaving was welcome to exchange his spent horse for his pick out of the caballada. Nearly all the commerce of the country with other nations was in their hands. Long habits of management and economy gave them a great aptitude for business of all kinds, and each succeeding year witnessed an increase of their wealth and authority."

* The following is an extract from the instructions:—

"With the desire that population may be more speedily assured in the new establishment, I, for the present, grant the commandant power to designate common lands, and, also, even to make individual concessions to such Indians as may most dedicate themselves to agriculture and the raising of cattle—for, having property of their own, the love of it will cause them to plant themselves more firmly; but the commandant must bear it in mind, that it is very advisable not to allow them to live dispersed, each on the land given him, but that they must have their house or habitation in the town or mission where they have been gathered or settled.

"I grant the same faculty to the commandant with respect to distributing lands to the other settlers, (*pobladores*), according to their merit and ability to improve; they

soldiers of the garrison to marry the baptized Indian girls of the missions, and authorizing the assignment of land to them on marrying.

Subsequently, on the 1st June, 1779, a general decree or set of regulations for the granting of lands was drawn up by Governor Neva, and approved by the King of Spain, which, with slight alterations, remained in force for more than forty years.

This decree contained instructions respecting colonization and the government of the new colonists. Each *poblador* (*colonist*) was to receive a bounty of \$116 44 per annum for the first two years, and \$60 per annum for the next three years; and, also, was to have the loan of horses, mules, cattle, farming utensils, &c. The streets, squares, municipal and common lands of the *pueblos*, and the *solares*, or house lots, and *suertes* of sowing lands of the *pobladores*, were to be designated by the government.

Discharged soldiers were to receive building and planting lots, the same as the colonists. All the *pobladores* were to possess the right of pasturing their cattle and of cutting wood on the common lands of the *pueblos*. Certain conditions were to be attached to these grants of land, such as the building of houses, planting of trees, &c., within a specified period of time.

These regulations, with slight modifications, have formed the basis of the laws which have ever since governed the *pueblos* of California:—

On the 22d of October, 1791, orders were sent to Governor Romen authorizing the captains of the *presidios* to grant and distribute house lots and lands to the soldiers and citizens within the extent of two common leagues, in every direction from the centre of each *presidio* square.

When Mexico was declared a republic, the government provided for the regulation of the territories by the decrees and regulations of 1824 and 1828.

Their most important provisions were as follows:—The governor of the Territory was empowered to make grants of lands to contractors (for towns or colonies) and individuals or heads of families.

Grants of the first-named class required the approval of the supreme government to make them valid. For the latter the ratification of the territorial assembly was necessary; but in no case could the governor make grants of any land lying within ten

also living in the town, and not dispersed; declaring that in the exercise of what is prescribed in this article and the preceding, he must act in every respect in conformity with the provisions made in the collection of laws respecting new reductions and settlements, granting them legal titles for the owner's protection without exacting any remuneration therefor, or for the act of possession."

leagues of the sea coast, or within twenty leagues of the boundaries of any foreign power, without the previous approval of the supreme government.

The authorities of towns, however, were allowed to dispose of lands lying within the town limits, the proceeds to be paid into the municipal fund.

Individuals were debarred from selling their property, but the towns had so much given to them; and they were all the while, as the towns increased, permitted to sell, provided the proceeds of the sale went into the hands of the municipal authorities:

The maximum extent of a single grant was fixed at one square league of irrigable land, four of *temporal*, or land where produce depends on the seasons, and six of land for pasturing and rearing cattle—eleven square leagues (about fifty thousand acres) in all. The minimum extent was two hundred varas square (a vara is a little less than a yard) of irrigable land, eight hundred of *temporal*, and twelve hundred of pasturage. The size of a house lot in any of the pueblos was fixed at one hundred varas. The irregular spaces and patches lying between the boundaries of grants throughout the country, were to be distributed among the colonists who occupied the adjoining land, or their children, preference being given to those who had distinguished themselves by their industry and moral deportment.

With respect to the missions, those immense domains held by the clergy, they were secularized by the Mexican government. On this subject Mr. Benton remarked,

“There is not an inch square in California, in the whole of it, which is held by an ecclesiastical title—neither in Upper or Lower California. What was so held has undergone secularization. By a decree of the Mexican Congress, of the 17th August, 1833, every acre of land in Upper and Lower California was secularized—that is, was taken from the church—returned to the world, *ad seculum*; and the priests, thus dispossessed, were all provided for by law. Those who remained in the country received salaries, and those who did not choose to remain, had their passage paid back into Old Mexico. Ecclesiastical titles ceased there precisely as they ceased in Great Britain, when the abbeys underwent secularization.”*

Such is a brief outline of the history of the grants and settlements

* “The first blow given to their privileges was a decree of the supreme government of Mexico, dated August 17, 1833, by which the missions of Upper and Lower California were secularized, and became public property. They were converted by law into parishes; and the padres, from being virtual sovereigns of their domains, became merely curates, possessing only spiritual powers over their former subjects. Instead of managing the revenue of the estates, they were paid from \$2,000 to \$2,500, at the option of government. The church was still kept for religious purposes.

in Upper California, under the Spanish and Mexican governments : and most of the valid titles are those which are in conformity with the decrees and regulations of Spain and Mexico, (the principal of which we have stated,) made prior to the 7th July, 1846, when the American flag was raised at Monterey.

After the Mexican war commenced, the Governor of California, anticipating the conquest of the country by the Americans, made several grants of lands, one especially, the Macnamara colonization grant ; but they never received the sanction of the supreme government.

There were other larger grants of recent date, such as the grants to Sutter, Weber, Vallejo, and Alvarado, by the Spanish governors of California, three or four years before the war.*

and the principal building for the curate's house, while other portions of the establishment were appropriated to the purposes of court-houses and schools.

"This law, of course, emancipated the Indians from the authority of the padres, and likewise absolved the latter from their obligations to maintain them. To provide for their support, therefore, the government granted to every head of a family a lot from one to four hundred varas square, which was assigned to the use of themselves and their descendants, but could not be sold by them under penalty of the land reverting back to the public domain.

"By a further decree in 1840, Governor Alvarado substituted major-domos in place of the ayuntamientos, giving them power to manage the temporal affairs of the missions, but not to dispose of the revenues, or contract debts without the permission of government.

"These decrees put a stop to the prosperity of the missions. The padres, seeing the establishments taken out of their hands, employed themselves no longer in superintending their cultivation ; while the Indians, though free, lost the patient guidance and encouragement they had received, and relapsed into their hereditary habits of sloth and stupidity. Many of them scattered from their homes, resuming a roving life among the mountains, and very soon several of the missions almost ceased to have an existence. Gov. Micheltorrena, therefore, in 1843, in a pompous proclamation, setting forth his loyalty to the Catholic faith, attempted to restore the former state of things by delivering twelve missions into the hands of the priests."—B. TAYLOR.

* Mr. Wm. Carey Jones, who was sent by the Secretary of the Interior to examine the California land claims, states :

"There are understood, in the country, however, to be large claims, reputed to be founded on grants direct from the Mexican government—one held by Captain Sutter, another by General Vallejo. The archives (as far as I could discover) only show that Captain Sutter received, on the 18th July, 1841, from Governor Alvarado, the usual grant of *eleven sitios*, on the river Sacramento, and this is all I ascertained. The archives show that General Vallejo received from Governor Micheltorrena, on the 22d October, 1843, a grant of ten sitios, called 'Petaluma,' in the district of Sonoma ; and I was informed by a respectable gentleman in California, that General Vallejo had likewise a grant from the Mexican government, given for a valuable consideration, of a large tract, known by the name of 'Soscot,' and including the site of the present town of Benicia, founded by Messrs. Vallejo and Semple, in the Straits of Carquinez. It is also reputed that the same gentleman has extensive claims in the valley of Sonoma, and on Suisun bay.

"There is but one grant that I could learn of which covers any portion of the gold mines. Previous to the occupation of the country by the Americans, the parts now known as *The Gold Region* were infested with the wild Indians, and no attempts made to settle there. The grant that I refer to was made by Governor Micheltorrena to Don Juan B. Alvarado, in February, 1844, and is called the *Mariposas*, being

A great difficulty attending the titles of lands in California, grew out of the want of regular surveys of grants up to the time of the conquest by the United States. The grants generally were for "*sitios*" "*creadores*," &c., lying between certain hills, streams, &c., as shown by rough sketches attached to the papers. Usually there was a direction that the grantee should receive possession of the land from the proper magistrate, with "suitable landmarks;" but in most cases the officer gave possession according to the general verbal direction. Therefore, there are in California very few claims aided by an actual survey made under the government of Mexico or Spain.

This grew out of the sparse population, the inefficiency of the machinery of the former government, or the indifference of the original inhabitants. The boundaries in many, at the change of government, were but loosely defined, but still with such references to natural objects as to make them susceptible of location.

The uncertainty of the tenures, the want of formality in the titles, the variety and importance of the claims, the large extent of territory that was to be opened to settlers,* and the constant collision between settlers and colonists, had caused much excitement in California, and even the shedding of blood. A speedy adjustment of titles and claims was loudly called for, to quiet the alarm of the old occupants and those who held the smaller possessions within the *pueblos*, deriving their title from the ancient grants; as well as to satisfy the occupants under more recent and larger grants, and to accommodate the spirit of enterprise, which required a clear and undisputed possession, so that all improvements hereafter to be made should enure to the benefit of those who expended their money and labor in making them.

California was acquired by conquest first: yet it was, in fact, purchased by the United States, to whom it was ceded by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 2d February, 1848, and which when confirmed became the law of the land; and the government, therefore, came in as the successor of Mexico. It was, therefore, insisted that as the treaty both stipulated for the maintenance and protection of individuals in the enjoyment of their property,

situated on the Mariposas creek, and between the Sierra Nevada and the river Joaquin, and comprises ten *sitios*, or leagues square, conceded, as the grant expresses, 'in consideration of the public services' of the grantee. It was purchased from the grantee (Alvarado) in February, 1847, by Thomas O. Larkin, Esq., for Mr. J. C. Fremont, and is now owned by that gentleman."

Mr. Gwin said that there were more than one private claim extending into the gold districts. There was one of Mr. Larkin—Johnson's ranche, and others which he knew to exist.

* The estimate surface of the State of California is 188,981 square miles, or 120,947,840 acres, with a sea-coast of 970 miles.

inceptive and incomplete as the rights might be, and also agreed that the United States would "pass without unnecessary delay, and always vigilantly enforce, such laws as the nature of the subject might require," it was incumbent upon Congress to separate the public domain from private property and legislate in the matter speedily and decisively.

There seemed, also, to have been an express understanding between the senators and representatives from California and the people before their election, that they would prosecute this object, so important to the State.

The bill of Mr. Gwin proposed that a board of commissioners should be appointed to sit in California, at such times and places as the President might designate, before whom "all persons claiming lands in California by virtue of any right or title derived from the Spanish or Mexican governments," prior to the 7th day of July, 1846, should present them for examination. It provided that the claims should be presented within a given fixed time; that the district attorney should attend the sittings of the board; that from the decisions of the board, appeals might be made to the district court, and afterwards to the Supreme Court of the United States; and that all lands covered by claims rejected by the court, or not prosecuted within two years, should be considered as part of the public domain.* The commissioners were also to report to the Secretary of the Interior the nature of the claims in town lots or other lands. Other provisions were added for securing the equitable rights of the pueblos or villages, and of the original settlers—for the issuing of patents, &c.

Mr. Benton's bill, offered as an amendment to Mr. Gwin's, provided for the appointment of a recorder of land titles, learned in the Spanish and English languages, who was to collect and keep all the public archives, and call in record the evidences of all the land titles. And it was made the duty of all towns, cities, villages, pueblos, all missions not secularized, and all individuals claiming

* "It shall and may be lawful for the claimant, or the United States, to present a petition to the district court of the proper district, setting forth fully the nature of the claims, names of the original and present claimants, with the deraignment of title, accompanied by a transcript of the report of the board of commissioners, and of the papers on which it was founded; and it shall thereupon, and at the next ensuing term of the district court aforesaid, be the duty of the said court to render a judgment, and, upon the application of the party against whom judgment is rendered, grant an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States; and the said Supreme Court of the United States shall thereupon proceed finally to adjudicate such claims.

"That such petition shall be filed in the district court within six months of the date of the decision of the tribunal aforesaid.

"That all lands covered by claims which may be finally rejected by said court, or not brought before the said court, or prosecuted within the period of two years, shall be treated as a part of the public domain."

lands in California by virtue of any claim whatever, whether derived from Spanish, Mexican, or California authorities, before the conquest of California, to present them to the recorder. This office was to make returns to the Commissioner of the General Land Office; and in connection with the district attorney, to examine the claims, and if they believed any of them invalid, to issue a *scire facias* citing the claimant to appear in the district court to make good his claim, and the decision of that court to be fixed. Mr. Benton also provided in his bill that the quantity of four common leagues, measured from the centre of the town, city, or pueblo, two leagues in every direction, should be confirmed to all towns, cities, and pueblos:—(this Mr. Gwin proposed to make the subject of a separate bill) and that all grants made by civil or military officers of the United States, after the occupation of the country, should be reserved for the consideration of Congress. These were the principal features of the substitute bill of Mr. Benton.

It will be seen that the main difference between these gentlemen, was in the mode of examining the titles, the one proposing a board of commissioners, and the other a recorder with a district attorney associated. In the one bill, the time for presenting claims was limited, in the other not. In the one there was an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States—in the other the decision of the district court was to be final. Mr. Benton included as claimants all classes of persons who held land in California, or claimed title from any authority; Mr. Gwin limited them to those who claimed under Spanish or Mexican grants, before July 7th, 1846.

Both professed a desire to give to all claimants their equitable and just rights under the treaty, to maintain the inviolability of private property, and to separate in the speediest way the private from the public domain.

A synopsis of the debates, first on the rival bills of Messrs. Benton and Gwin, and then the bill reported by the Judiciary Committee, to whom the whole subject was finally referred, will serve, with what we have already stated, to present the bearing and merits of the whole question.

Mr. Benton took the lead in the debate, as his amendment was substantially the same as the original bill offered by Mr. Fremont, and for which Mr. Gwin's was a substitute.

Mr. Benton said: "The bill which I propose consists of general and special provisions, the latter growing out of peculiar circumstances in California, and necessary to be separately attended, to in order to avoid injustice and confusion. I have put myself to the trouble and labor of examining closely the condition

of land-titles in California, and hope to offer nothing to the Senate for which there is not a reason to be found.

“The first of these special provisions is in section 5, and grows out of the peculiar system of land *distribution* (for so the Spanish laws called it) of the crown lands in California. The settlement of the Californias was different from that in other parts of Spanish America; it was by ecclesiastical missions; and on account of the remoteness of the country—its isolation, and exposure to dangers—a most liberal system of land distributions was adopted, and great care was taken for the protection of the settlements. Every settlement was to be formed round a *presidio*—military station—extending two common leagues every way from the centre of the presidio; so that every point should be equally convenient for protection. Within that extent the captain of the station, and afterwards the municipal authorities of the town, village, or city, which grew up about it, was authorized to distribute land, not at discretion, but according to a rule laid down; and which was wise and equitable, and adapted to the wants of every inhabitant. First, a *pueblo* or village was to be laid off, consisting of streets and squares; and within that pueblo every settler was to have a house-lot of so many *varas* (the Spanish yard, three geometrical feet) square; then an out-lot, for cultivation, of a moderate and fixed size; then a right of common in the ungranted remainder. This system applied to every settlement in the country, and these settlements commenced in Upper California, the one which we now own, about the time of the commencement of the American revolution—a few years before—and having originated under a peculiar policy, and as an exception to the general mode of distributing lands in California, I deem it just and proper, now that we have become masters of the country, and propose to overhaul all the titles, that we should observe the distinctions between the different kinds of grants—the difference between the *municipal*, thus granted in small parcels in the pueblos, and the *rural*, consisting of large grants in the country. The fifth section of my bill conforms to that distinction, and in the very terms of the Spanish law, except in the case of *Yerba Buena*, or San Francisco, where a deviation in the mode of measuring for quantity is admitted. Instead of measuring two leagues every way from the centre—which would put half the grant into the bay of San Francisco—it proceeds south, in this instance, for quantity—the only direction in which it can be found—but without prejudice to private claims. With this reservation, and with an exception of what is not wanted by the United States for military purposes, or necessary buildings, all the titles in the four leagues in all the towns, cities, villages, and pueblos, are confirmed;

and all the vacant ground which may still be found in the four leagues square, is granted to the city or town authorities for city or town purposes."

After descanting on the Spanish laws, which originated these grants, (the substance of which we have given on a preceding page,) Senator Benton further remarked:

"This much, Mr. President, I have felt it my duty to say in support of the fifth section of my bill, which applies to the municipal grants. It confirms by the law itself *ex proprio vigore*, the quantity of four leagues square, which was the minimum quantity granted by a general law; and I have no doubt that larger quantities were granted by special decrees, to different pueblos as they grew up, and expanded, and increased, in population and wealth, and became towns and cities. They were gifts to domiciliated Indians, to discharged soldiers, and to emigrating settlers; and it is revolting to think that the descendents and the assignees of those recipients of the paternal bounty of the King of Spain may be dragged before a board of commissioners to prove their titles, with the chance of being hauled up into the United States district courts in California, to prove them a second time there, and a further chance to be pulled across the continent from the Pacific to the Atlantic, to prove them a third time before the Supreme Court of the United States. It is horrible to think of, and more cruel, and not less illegal, than direct confiscation."

In relation to the appointment of a recorder, instead of a board of commissioners, he said:

"I speak of the leading provision, that of creating a keeper of the land archives—a recorder—to collect the titles and evidences of claims to lands in California, and to record and preserve them. This is an office of such evident necessity—of such general utility both to the fair claimant and the public—that it is difficult to conceive of any system for ascertaining and settling land titles in a newly-acquired country in which it can be omitted. It is an office which was created in Upper Louisiana preliminary to the appointment of a board of commissioners, and still exists there, although the board has been long since discontinued. The bill submitted at the last session by the other senator from California, [Mr. Fremont] contained a provision for such an office. The substitute now offered by the senator present from California, contains no such provision, but merely sets the commissioners to work, adjudicating titles, with the double appeals to the district and supreme courts, without any provision either for a preliminary or subsequent collection, preservation, and record of titles.

"One of the inquiries to which the attention of Mr. Jones was directed by the Secretary of the Interior, related to this very point

—the existence and condition of the land archives; and his answer shows the necessity of immediately creating an officer to collect and preserve all these evidences of grants and titles. He shows (page 7) that these archives are in a very imperfect state now. They were formerly kept at *Los Angeles*, but removed after the conquest to Monterey, and, besides other imperfections, a book of grants for the year 1846, seen by Col. Fremont, when he was governor at Los Angeles, and delivered by him to the officers appointed by Gen. Kearney, was not to be found by Mr. Jones. It was the most material of all the land books, being the one that covered the year of the conquest, and the one from which Mr. Fremont made the *memoranda* for the information of his government which I shall presently notice, and in which the grants of that year, including the 3,000 square leagues to Macnamara, should be found. These books have been without any officer appointed by law to take care of them; and it stands to reason that such an officer should now be appointed. The bill which I propose provides for such an officer; the bill proposed by Mr. Fremont at the last session provided for one; the substitute bill now offered by the senator present from California [Mr. Gwin] does not.

“With regard to surveys, respecting which so much has been said, there were none in California. The ordinance of Intendants of 1786 required surveys. It appointed surveyors general for every Intendancy, and he had his deputies in every province. According to that law, the land is required to be surveyed before there can be a good title. This belongs to the law of Intendants General. Sir, was there ever any such thing as that in California? Their system required no survey. The title passed by the decree under which the lands were granted at the time possession was given. There was a grant within certain metes and bounds to a portion of land, and within these metes and bounds the grant was to be located—the overplus going to the Crown. But it was not determined what was the exact locality of the land which was granted within these metes and bounds; that was left for after-determination, when the settlements became thick. There was no surveyor in California, either general or particular; and there is not a surveyed tract in California, under the Spanish laws. Now surveys are wanted, and my bill provides the quickest way to get them.

“What does my bill provide? That the recorder of land titles shall lay down a plan, and as fast as any tract is surveyed, the grant shall be reduced to the exact quantity which is required by the grant. The Spanish laws required that the land should be taken out of a particular district of country, and the overplus was to belong to the Crown of Spain. My bill is exactly in confor-

mity with what the Spanish government has done with respect to these lands. In the condition in which California was at the time of its settlement, when there were immense estates for all, there was no necessity for reducing the grants to exact limits: the grantee occupied anywhere within the general boundary. I can well conceive that one person may go within the same tract where another has a grant also; and he may be warned off. There may be double or quadruple the quantity granted within the general limits; and, of course, there may be disputes as to the precise locality of the grant of each one within the general boundary. My bill will put an end to all disputes—first, by conjectural surveys and a map, and afterwards by precise surveys, as fast as the titles are confirmed.”

Mr. Benton severely assailed the bill of Mr. Gwin :

“There are fundamental errors in the substitute bill presented by the senator from California. In the first inception, in the very first line, there is a fundamental error. It is that of sending *ALL* these claims to a board of commissioners, who are not even a judicial tribunal, without distinction of complete or incomplete. It sends *all* claims before the board for trial, without making any distinction between the perfect and the imperfect, the complete and the incomplete, the full and the inchoate titles. In constituting every board that has ever been constituted by the United States heretofore, the law has made a distinction between those which are full titles and those which are imperfect; and the law went upon the assumption which the Supreme Court declared afterwards sanctioned, that a full title was perfect in itself, and that Congress could not abolish it. He insisted that the bill of Mr. Gwin was not only oppressive, but threw discredit upon all the old Spanish titles. That the claimants under these titles would abandon their possessions, or resist the law; and he objected to the limitation in the bill by which only claims derived from Spanish or Mexican authority were to go before the board. He said that it cut off all those, or raised a question about those which are derived from the California local authorities.”

He continued: “The United States came into the shoes of the government which had ceased to exist, and were bound to do whatever that government was bound to do, leaving the full titles as they were, and perfecting the imperfect. That has been the principle of every bill from 1804; and so obviously right is the principle that it needs no argument to support it. Now, the bill of the senator from California sets out with a fundamental disregard of the difference between the perfect and the imperfect titles, and hands them all over, from beginning to end, to the same process—the same trial before a board, before a district court, and

before the Supreme Court; to the same forfeiture—the same return into the mass of the public lands, if the conditions are not complied with, and decisions are not obtained in their favor.

“Sir, the substitute bill before the Senate, if carried into effect, would be a violation of the law of nations, a violation of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, a violation of the laws of Mexico under which the lands were settled, a violation of the capitulation and the proclamations under which the people submitted to cease fighting the government of the United States; and I now add that if it is carried out it will be a plain, downright, and outright violation of the constitution of the United States.

“It sets out with three commissioners, who are to be appointed by and with the consent of the Senate, and that makes a board. A board of commissioners is not an authority known at common law; it has no jury, and none of the rights of a court, unless they are given to it by statute; and there is nothing given to this board except what is to work against the claimants, even those who have perfect titles in their hands. The senator who advocates the bill believes it will be mildly executed, so as to harass nobody but those who have bad titles. I cannot legislate on such a belief. No one can tell in what manner, or in what spirit, a law of unbounded application will be executed. No man can answer in such a case. It is a wrong principle. Laws should depend upon their own equity, and not upon the temper, or passions, or calculations of commissioners, judges, and prosecuting attorneys. The law should be made right in itself, and not left to them to make it right in the execution, though wrong in itself. Illegal, oppressive, and ruinous power ought not to be put into the hands of judges and attorneys, under the supposition that they will use it with moderation and justice. Such a power must alarm a country. All California must be alarmed at such a terrible inquisition over property. Those who are actually pursued through the three courts will be ruined by expenses and delays; those who escape the appeal to the Supreme Court will still have their alarms and disquietudes until the danger has all passed by; and that may be a term of years. In the meantime, the bare passage of the act discredits all the titles of the country—reduces the selling value of all real estate—and paralyzes the industry of the people. It is a crime against one man to disturb him unjustly about his property; it is a public crime so to disturb a whole community. They are no longer able to fulfil their public duties to their country, or their private duties to their families, while sick at heart for the safety of their property. And how long is this agony to continue? Until the seven or more years would elapse which it would require to carry the suits through all the courts.

"I said before, and I repeat it, that since the barbarous times of William, the Norman conqueror, there has been no general confiscation of the landed property of a country—that in this civilized age no conqueror impeaches or disturbs the landed titles of a conquered country—that no treaty permits it—and that no people should submit to such impeachment but those who are too weak to resist. Our treaty with Mexico secures to every inhabitant of the ceded countries "*the free enjoyment of his property.*" How is that enjoyment to be free, or even to be enjoyment at all, which is impeached by a government, and pursued by a government, through successive courts of its own creation, to invalidate and destroy them?"

Mr. Gwin in support of his bill spoke as follows:

"There is no claim to originality in the bill. I claim no credit for originating a single provision of it. It is based upon expositions of treaty obligations to protect private property, and guard against frauds upon the government as land owner in decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States. This bill is framed in accordance with the decisions of that distinguished tribunal, whose authority is universally respected. We look in vain amongst these decisions for authority to sustain the allegations against this bill—that it violates the treaty with Mexico, the law of nations, or the laws, usages, and customs of the governments that granted these claims."

The Senator then proceeded to examine the origin of the California land claims, for the purpose of showing that the claims originating from the Spanish Government were all valid; and in answer to the allegation of Mr. Benton, that he made no distinction between perfect and imperfect titles, that his bill oppressed the Spanish claimant, and violated the treaty, he said:

"Not a single large contested claim in California, so far as I have been able to ascertain, ever emanated from the government of Spain. The village and mission titles, and perhaps others, originated with that government; and what does the bill before the Senate propose to do with the former? The 10th section of the bill provides:

"That it shall be the duty of the board to ascertain and report to the Secretary of the Interior the nature of the claims to town lots or other lands, if any such there be, not embraced by the foregoing provisions of this act; and also the character of the tenure by which the mission lands are held, and those held by civilized Indians, or those who are engaged in labor, agriculture, &c., and also those which are occupied and cultivated by Pueblos or Rancheros Indians."

"This is the fiery ordeal described by the senator through

which these Spanish claims are to pass. They are to be reported upon to the Secretary of the Interior—the people not to be disturbed in their rights or possessions, not to be frightened out of their wits, as the senator intimates, or driven by our oppression to abandon their homes, and seek protection and other lands under the *paternal* government of Spain; a government which has swept like a pestilence over the fairest portions of America; whose officers were the robbers of this continent; who spread devastation by fire and sword everywhere they went. And why driven from our country to seek such an asylum? Because this board is to inquire into the tenure by which they hold their possessions, and report to the Secretary of the Interior. And what then? Why, upon his examination and recommendation, Congress will confirm every one of them that was honestly and fairly obtained, the parties remaining in the meantime in quiet and undisturbed possession of their property.

“But suppose the commissioners may decide that these claims are ‘embraced by the foregoing provisions of this act.’ Well, what then? They are required, in the third section of the bill, not only to give these claimants the benefit of the treaty with Mexico, the law of nations, the laws, usages, and customs of the government from which the claim is derived; but they are required to go further, and give them the benefit of the ‘law of prescription in favor of possessory rights, as applied to individuals.’ These are the very words of the bill. Well, what is the law of prescription? Ten years’ possession, the parties present, gives a title; twenty years’ possession, the parties absent, gives a title; and thirty years’ possession, with no claim, gives a title.

“Now, what becomes of this charge of oppressing the claimants under Spanish titles in California? Not only are they not oppressed, but they are most carefully and doubly protected. The passage of this law confirms every one of these claims. It is only necessary to show that they originated with the Spanish government, and their confirmation follows as a matter of course. And I confess I had this object in view when I introduced the bill. These old Spanish claims are not in contest in California, and never have been. There is no difficulty about them, and will not be. It is the recent grants held by a few individuals, covering an immense extent of the most valuable portion of the country, that we wish examined and decided—claims where the property is now assessed at tens of millions of dollars, and daily becoming more valuable—claims about the validity of which there is great difference of opinion; and fierce and bloody collisions have grown out of these different opinions. We wish these settled, and by

the highest judicial tribunal in the country—a decision by which all must and will abide.

“I repeat what I have said before, that this bill arraigns no Spanish title; that it holds up no Spanish title as a fraud against the United States; that such titles do not have to pass through the ordeal of three different courts, one of them the Supreme Court of the United States, to establish their validity. The grants made under the government of Spain in California, as has been before stated, were principally in pueblo and mission lots. These the commissioners can confirm outright, or, under the tenth section, report upon them to the Secretary of the Interior, to be laid before Congress for confirmation; and in the case of larger grants, if there be any such, the commissioners are bound to confirm them, under the law of prescription as adopted in this bill.

“Should Congress refuse to extend to claimants the opportunity of having their equitable titles ascertained and carried into fee, it would indeed be a violation of treaty obligations, and a denial of a privilege consecrated by the practice of the government for nearly half a century. If, on the other hand, it could be possible for Congress to authorize every claim to be recognised without applying any test, it would not only be a violation of the plainest principles of right, but a sacrifice of the interests of thousands of our citizens who, through the instrumentality of fraud, cupidity, or dishonest speculation, may be made tributary to the interests of the designing, reckless, and avaricious. The bill now before the Senate, in a plain and direct manner proposes to ascertain what is private property, in order to separate it from the public lands; it then provides, after the evidence is collected, if there is a doubt about a title, it shall be submitted to the judiciary, and there by appeal be finally settled.”

To the objection that this bill shut out claims granted by the California authorities, he said :

“The laws of Mexico authorized the local authorities of California to grant lands. This is Mexican law, and the California authorities are the mere officials to execute it. I have to-day read the law of Mexico, granting this authority to the governors and legislative assemblies; but are these any the less Mexican laws because the California authorities carry them into effect? The question is too plain to require further argument. But the senator says my colleague's bill (to which mine was offered as a substitute, and adopted by the Senate in committee of the whole, and is now before us for our action) provided for an examination of claims emanating from the California authorities. If this had been all that my colleague's [Mr. Fremont's] bill had provided for, it would have been merely a work of supererogation, and harm

less in its effects; but it went a great deal further than this. It did not limit the action of the board to claims of the California government before the conquest, but extended its action up to the date of the ratification of the treaty with Mexico. This gave authority to the board to examine claims which may have originated with the American officers in command in Mexico, who had no authority to grant lands, thus mixing up powers that could make grants legally, with those that could not. I am utterly opposed to the mingling of these claims. Let them be examined separately, and upon their own merits."

With regard to the appointment of a recorder, as was proposed by the other bill, Mr. Gwin said:

"I am opposed to the appointment of any such officer for any such purpose. He is to collect all the land-titles in California, good and bad, and is to record them, and return the originals, unless he suspects forgery and simulation. The suspicion of no one man thus appointed, should have the power of deciding what is forged or simulated, and what is *bona fide*. The prejudices, partialities, want of judgment of the recorder, and the receipt of secret information, communicated for mischievous purposes, may cast a shade upon the best titles in the country, and permit the very worst to be recorded without question. It is a dangerous principle to give one man the power to say that he suspects a claim to be forged or simulated, without giving that officer the power, and making it his duty, to examine and see whether his suspicions are correct or not. He should be required to examine witnesses, and collect testimony not furnished by the parties presenting the claims, or impeaching it by *ex parte* and unofficial statements.

"But, further, I am opposed to creating any tribunal where an illegal claim stands on the same footing with a good one; when the good and bad are put upon the same record. The suspicion of the recorder may not detect forged or simulated claims. They are generally better prepared, so far as legal and official forms are concerned, than good claims. We will suppose that a fraudulent claim is recorded. A transcript of this record is taken from the recorder's book, with his certificate of its being correct. This record is brought to the Secretary of State of the United States, who certifies under the broad seal of the Union that the recorder is an officer of the United States, qualified by law to receive and record land-titles in California. Well, the claimant with his record goes to Europe, and with fair promises gets a party of emigrants to settle on his claim. They cannot suspect fraud in his claim. The United States have permitted it to be recorded, and the record to be certified as correct, countersigned by the

Secretary of State. Ignorant of our laws, what better evidence of title could they ask? The emigrants, at great expense, arrive in the country and settle on the claim. After the lapse of some years—for this, sir, is to be the work of years, as I shall show before I am done—the recorder gets through his tour of collecting land-titles, and sits down in his office with the district attorney to look into the ‘abstracts,’ and in the course of time they come to the claim above described, and declare it illegal, and order a *scire facias* to issue to vacate it. For the first time these emigrants find they have no title to their lands, or that it is in dispute, and likely to be forfeited. As innocent claimants they appeal to Congress, and Congress grants them relief; and thus, a bad claim—bad from the first—and which a competent tribunal, authorized to examine it on presentation, would never have declared good, is confirmed, because the government, by its own act of permitting its officer to put it among the good claims, had induced innocent parties to invest their all in it, and who would be involved in ruin unless relieved by Congress. Can a more unanswerable reason be given for subjecting claims, on their presentation, to examination, so that the good and bad may not be mingled together? I want all of these claims tried as presented, and the old claims confirmed; for there is no suspicion of fraud in respect to them; the presentation of their papers furnishes the evidence that confirms them. Then, as to the new claims—those that will be contested—they are put upon their merits, and confirmed or rejected, and the country forever freed from being disturbed by them.”

In regard to the allusions that had been made about fraudulent titles in California, Mr. Benton answered that he regarded most of the alarm on this subject as idle, and that it comes to a very narrow point of time in which there is room for suspicion of frauds. He said that in 1845, when the Mexican and California authorities suspected there might be war with the United States, they began to transfer their property to British subjects; and then, also, Macnamara projected his great plan of obtaining the missions property, and procured a recommendatory letter from Secretary Cuevas to the authorities of California. Mr. Benton then proceeded to give a curious relation of the circumstances of the occupation of California by Commodore Sloat and Col. Fremont:

“This was in the autumn of 1845, and Macnamara went up to California in the spring of 1846—was carried up in a British ship-of-war. And then the British squadron was seen in that ocean—the largest ever seen there—watching Commodore Sloat. The British Admiral, Seymour, watched him when he was at Mazatlan. At one time Commodore Sloat, being determined to decide

whether he was really watched, went off to sea, and the British commander went off after him, and when Commodore Sloat came back, the British admiral came back also. But when he got news of the actions of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, Commodore Sloat, thinking the time had come to carry out his instructions with regard to California, set sail for that coast; but, knowing he was watched, he determined to throw the British Admiral Seymour off his track, and he started off as if he was going to the Sandwich Islands, and when covered with the darkness of the night, he tacked and went to California. The British Admiral went on to the Sandwich Islands, and when he arrived there, found he had been *Yankeyed*, and he pushed for California. There was as close conjunction of several as important events as ever occurred in the space of one week—events of which American history knows nothing; but there were crowded together in the short space of one week events which prevented the transfer of all the landed property of California to British subjects, as well as the political authority of California, and the destruction of American settlements.

“The people of California went and told Mr. Fremont what was going on; that a convention was sitting at Santa Barbara to put the country under the protection of the British government, and a British fleet was expected to take possession. The people informed Mr. Fremont that a military expedition was organizing against them, to burn up their crops and destroy their flocks, and excite the Indians against them, and that these three things were going on, and upon the point of being executed, and would be executed unless he would put himself at their head with his corps of sixty men, and with them overturn the Mexican power in California. He did so; and he and the settlers took and kept possession of the country north of San Francisco. And they did this without one farthing of pay to this day. On the fifth of July, at Sonoma, they ran up the flag of independence. They overturned the Mexican authority, not knowing that the war with Mexico had commenced. At this time Commodore Sloat arrived, but he hesitated for several days before he would put up the American flag at Monterey. He did not know yet of the successful operations of Fremont. When he heard of them, he ran up the American flag, (7th July, 1846,) and sent for Mr. Fremont to come down and join him. The British Admiral arrived just after the flag was run up, and when he came, he was astonished to see the American flag flying over Monterey, and to see Fremont with his rifles over the hills of the town, and the American squadron in the bay. I do not wish to state further on that point; but when Commodore Sloat found that Mr. Fremont had acted without spe-

cial instruction from his government—though he had general instructions to watch for the interests of his government—he resigned his command to Commodore Stockton, and came home. Then Fremont and Stockton prosecuted the conquest of the country, and achieved it in August, 1846.”

Both bills, and the whole subject, after this discussion, were referred to the Judiciary Committee, who reported a bill by their Chairman, Mr. Berrien of Georgia.

The general features of the bill of Mr. Gwin were retained, but some important alterations were made, especially in the provisions of the 13th Section, which was as follows:

“That if the title of the claimant to such lands shall be contested by any other person, it shall and may be lawful for such person to file a petition in the district court of the United States for the district in which the lands are situated, plainly and distinctly setting forth his title thereto, and praying the said court to hear and determine the same—a copy of which petition shall be served upon the adverse party thirty days before the meeting of the court to which it is returnable; and the subsequent proceedings thereon shall be the same as in the other civil cases.

“*Provided always*, That if the title of the claimant to such lands shall be *contested by any other person*,—

“It shall and may be lawful for such person to file a petition in the district court of the United States for the district in which the lands are situated.”

To this section Mr. Benton objected, and also to the jurisdiction of the Court, and moved to strike out the proviso.

Mr. Berrien in answer said:

“The object of the government, in the first place, is to separate the public from the private domain. For that purpose, it has organized a board of commissioners, or rather, it proposes to organize a board of commissioners, with a right to review by the district court, and an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States. That is for the purpose of separating the public from the private domain.

“But the bill and Congress have a further object. It is to give peace to California; it is to settle the private land claims in that State. I learn from various papers from that State, which are sent to me, that this subject just now engrosses and agitates the public mind in California more than any other. After having separated the public from the private domain, there remains something else to be done. It is ascertained that a tract of land to which a claim has been interposed is private property—is not a part of the public domain. Well, then, in order to secure the individual who is entitled to that property in the possession of it,

you must give him a patent, but you must give that patent to the person who is really entitled to it. But, inasmuch as the object of the proceeding, so far as it has gone, was merely to separate the public from the private domain, following in the path which had been traced by this government in the other acquisitions of territory which she has made, it is provided that if any other person shall contest the title of that claimant whose title has not yet been decided in the proceeding between him and the United States—if any other person shall contest the title of that claimant, the patent shall not be issued until certain proceedings shall be had. If you leave the claimant, as he is left by the inaction of the commissioner and the Supreme Court, without a patent, his title is not perfect. You cannot give him that which will perfect his title when another alleges a claim and proposes that it may be examined.

"Why, this provision was exactly in substance contained in the bill proposed by the absent senator from California, [Mr. Fremont.]"

To obviate any objection to the jurisdiction of the Court, Mr. Berrien offered the following suggestions and amendment:

"It will, perhaps, simplify the proceedings to allow the district judge to interpose, merely for the purpose of staying the emanation of the patent, until the question of title is decided, or until sufficient time has been allowed for the purpose of obtaining that decision. Then the question of title, as between these two conflicting parties, involving the legal as well as the equitable title, will be submitted to the State tribunals. With this view, in order to ascertain the sense of the Senate, I will submit the following amendments."

Mr. Berrien then submitted his amendments, which being agreed to, the proviso would read as follows:

"*Provided always*, That if the title of the claimant to such lands shall be contested by any other person, it shall and may be lawful for such person to present a petition to the district judge of the United States for the district in which the lands are situated, plainly and distinctly setting forth his title thereto, and praying the said judge to hear and determine the same, a copy of which shall be served upon the adverse party, thirty days before the time appointed for hearing the same."

The section of the bill which allowed the corporate authorities of the towns and villages to present the claims within their bounds, instead of obliging every individual to do it, was amended so as to comprise not only the towns, cities, and villages prior to July 7th, 1846, but also those which have come into existence since.

The question of *prescription* after this became the subject of a

learned and long debate, in which some of the most distinguished senators took part. The substance of it we shall give as briefly as possible.

Senator Benton moved the following amendment to the 11th Section of the Committee's Bill:

"And the law of prescription in favor of possessory rights, as applicable to individuals."

In presenting this amendment Mr. Benton said: "When I first expressed my opposition to this bill, I stated three general heads of objection to which it was open, one of which was in leaving out what was good in previous bills. I now give an instance in the words offered as an amendment. They were in the previous bills, and are omitted in the one from the Judiciary Committee. They were in the bill first brought in by Mr. Fremont, in the one brought in by the senator from California now present, in the bill which I myself offered as an amendment to his; so that in all the bills heretofore introduced on this subject, the words have been retained which are now sent to the Chair to be inserted. They are left out by the Committee on the Judiciary.

"Now, Mr. President, the object of this amendment is to bring the element of time to stand for some little value in the adjudication of these land claims. By the bill of the Judiciary Committee, the element of time is omitted, and no amount of time will stand for anything, although three generations have passed away nearly since California was first settled. Now, sir, in all civilized nations, and in all barbarian nations, time is an element of title. Possession and time constitute an element of title in all civilized and in all barbarian nations, and that to such a degree that even the shortest time of rightful possession is an index to title, which is good against the world until a perfect title is made out. Even the shortest time is sufficient for this.

"But, sir, in all countries which have laws, in every country upon the earth which has laws, time, under certain limitations, becomes itself a title, and a perfect title, against which nothing can prevail. The civil law prescription is fair, equitable, and beautiful—more perfect in its three degrees of thirty, twenty, and ten years, than any of our statutes of limitation. Even under the common law, long possession, without any evidence whatsoever, is full title. Sixty years is full title in Great Britain. In every State in the Union there are statutes of limitation, only varying in time, under which possession is title itself; and if the possessor had the patents of all the powers on earth, he need not show one."

Mr. Berrien answered as follows:

"The omission of the provision in relation to prescription, which was contained in the several bills which were considered

by the Judiciary Committee, was the result of the deliberation of that committee, and was sustained by a unanimous voice. The committee proceeded upon the principle that we had acquired this territory under a stipulation to protect the rights of private property. The law of prescription, as between individuals, which it was sought to introduce into this bill, was not in conformity to the obligation of the government as stipulated by the treaty, nor did it conform to the action of the government in any previous territorial acquisition. The citizens of Mexico chose to rebel within the limits of California, and become citizens of the United States, and they were by that act entitled to our protection in all the rights which they would have had under the government from which they had derived their titles. Becoming American citizens, they were entitled to all the rights which belong to other citizens of the United States. Now, then, this law of prescription between individual and individual, which it is sought to introduce into this bill, would have given to the citizens of California a right which they would not have enjoyed under their own government, if that government had continued over them, and it would have given them a right which other citizens of the United States did not enjoy, as it relates to titles. By the civil law of Spain and Mexico, prescriptions cannot be made against the government. The very terms of individual prescription show its title to be inapplicable as against the government of the country. Ten years' actual possession in the presence of adverse claimants, twenty years in the absence of such adverse claimants, and thirty years' possession under color without possession, would give a title by prescription. It is obvious, therefore, that from the very terms of the sale by which prescription is provided for, it could not apply to the government. But all writers upon the subject expressly say, that prescription in favor of the individual, as against the government, does not exist. Then, if this territory had remained the territory of the republic of Mexico, the law of prescription, as between individual and individual, could not have been set up by these claimants. All that was stipulated for was that the rights which they had acquired under the government of Mexico should be protected, notwithstanding their transfer to the United States."

Mr. Underwood of Kentucky remarked, that if he apprehended the amendment aright, it was the introduction of a new principle, to make the same limitation as applies to individual cases, apply as between citizens and the government.

"Heretofore the doctrine of common law was that prescription did not run against the king, unless it may be in his individual capacity, as contra-distinguished from his political capacity. That

doctrine has been applied to the Commonwealth in this country—time does not run against the Commonwealth. That was the doctrine of the civil code.”

Mr. Underwood went on to say that “the section as it now stands really makes provision in regard to this particular subject to as great an extent as any provision ought to go. The section as it stands, says :

“ ‘That the comissioners herein provided for, and the district and supreme courts, in deciding on the validity of any claim brought before them under the provisions of this act, shall be governed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the law of nations, *the laws, usages, and customs of the government from which the claim is derived, the principles of equity and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States as far as they are applicable.*’

“Now, it is manifest, it seems to me, from that expression, ‘laws, usages, and customs,’ that if there be any law in California, or any law in New Mexico or Spain, under which these titles to be set up are derived, that would authorize a possessory right for any limited time to give a complete title to land; it is provided for here. Whatever law under which these titles are derived secures that title to individual claimants, whether it be by prescription, whether it be by grant, whether it be by possession for a definite number of years as contradistinguished from pre-emption—‘the memory of man running not to the contrary’—whatever it be, if it gives a title according to the laws of Spain, Mexico, or California, why, this section says it shall be respected by the commissioners. And this relieves us, you perceive, from going into the inquiry whether one, ten, or twenty years shall constitute the prescription necessary to confirm the title as between individuals.”

Mr. Soulé offered an amendment in lieu of the one offered by Mr. Benton, and which the latter accepted. It was as follows:

“*Provided*, That possession in good faith, within determined metes and boundaries, during twenty years, shall be deemed *prima facie* evidence of a complete grant against the government.”

Mr. Gwin, although he had originally inserted the proviso now asked for, in his own bill, said that, on reflection, he was now opposed to it, and remarked:

“Twenty years’ possession of lands with proper metes and boundaries gives a title, not only against every private adverse claimant in possession less than twenty years, but even against the government; that is to say, a claimant twenty years in the possession of a tract of land of unlimited extent is to be made good against all claims of subsequent date emanating from the proper authorities of Mexico. I will more fully illustrate my

views of the subject by stating a case that may arise under this amendment, if it is incorporated in the bill and becomes a law. General Castro has a claim for an immense tract of land in the Santa Clara valley. Many years ago, perhaps more than twenty—for I am not sufficiently accurate in the information I have to give as to dates—he surveyed this claim after the Mexican fashion in California, by sending out persons with a rope, who galloped on horseback through the country, and thus located his land. Within this claim is located several grants emanating from the Mexican governors of California. I get my information from citizens of the State now in the city, who own part of the claims last named. If Castro's claim dates further back than twenty years, this amendment will give him the land. Certainly we have not the power thus to decide between conflicting claimants. It gives the possessor of the claim that bears date more than twenty years fearful advantages over the owner of a claim of more recent date, although he may have been in possession a dozen, or even nineteen years. As I have said before, most of these are inchoate claims, and the claimant under the older grant has, under this amendment, an absolute quit-claim from the United States, and may and will plead the very defects against the subsequent claim that existed against his own, but which the government by this act has removed, so far as it is concerned, and would also remove in regard to the other claimant, if not estopped by this proceeding from examining it at all. It gives a great advantage to the older claimants, and I am not disposed to interfere at all in these conflicts, but leave them to be decided by the courts.

“Again: does not this affect the mission lands? The priests have been in possession of these missions more than twenty years—*continued* possession; for although the act of secularization has in most instances been accomplished in these missions, yet the priests have always remained in possession, and I am told now in some instances actually claim them.”

Mr. Soulé made an elaborate argument in favor of his amendment, although he admitted that he did not expect to succeed. He said:

“My object in moving that amendment, Mr. President, is obvious. I had intended to fix a limit to the inquisitorial investigation to be held under the provisions of the bill, where a possession, *in the spirit of ownership*, of course, *animo domini*, could be shown to have existed, at a time not suspicious, extending beyond so long a period as twenty years. It was an assertion of that great truth, proclaimed throughout the whole body of the civil law, and indeed acknowledged and sanctioned by the com-

mon law, that 'possession is a promulgation to the world of the right of ownership;' as if, in the language of Dioclesian, 'ownership could not be separated from possession.' *Etsi proprietas a possessione separari non possit* (L. 8, g. de acq. possessione.)"

He reviewed the history of the grants to the original settlers, and the liberal but loose way in which the Spanish government ceded away the lands. He referred to the manner in which the spots granted were marked out, and that it was not done so as to constitute an absolute and perfect grant. "Yet," he remarked, "they were held in such respect, as so sacred, that there is not a single instance in the whole history of the settlement of the Spanish colonies where they were disregarded or interfered with. And why? Why, the authorities from which a written specification of title or grant could be obtained were at unmeasurable distances from the place where the settlement had been organized; the communications were difficult and not frequent; the settler might apply again and again, and yet be unsuccessful in reaching the proper authority, and be left and die without ever having obtained a scrap through which he or his successors after him might assert their ownership. Yet they were the occupants of the soil originally allotted to them; they possessed it openly, in good faith, and as owners, within the metes and bounds determined by the crude measurement resorted to in such cases. The possession may go so far back as 1773, and have continued to the present day in the descendants of those devoted pioneers who first redeemed those wilds from the lowest stage of barbarism. And now, I ask, if, under the workings of this bill, you mean to expel those possessors? if you mean to require that they should exhibit other titles than their possessions—the first and the best of all titles? Do you mean to drag them before your commissioners first, then before your tribunals, that they may, after a long and harrowing litigation, be told, 'Away! this field is not yours,' and thus become homeless where the Spanish governors and viceroys, and the satraps of Mexico had left them in peace, in comfort, in security."

He attempted to combat the doctrine, that prescription does not apply as between the citizen and a free government. He admitted its application between a sovereign prince and subject, and then said:

"But while such an exception might have been justified under a state of things which constituted the sovereign in direct antagonism with his subjects, I can perceive no reason why it should be adhered to where the principle of the people's sovereignty prevails. In the first case, the wresting of any portion of the prince's domain might well be viewed as a trespass in which, as it exclud-

ed good faith, no such possession could originate as would ever supply a title; while in the other, if I may borrow a happy expression of a modern writer, 'he who, through the general sufferance lay hands on property to which there is no individual claim extant, has conscience that he but takes his share of what belongs to all, and if permitted to hold it in long and uninterrupted possession, makes it his, and his forever.' "

He then endeavored to show that the proviso could have no effect upon certain illegitimate grants, as it was feared it might; that a claim of the kind could not apply to the possession of the missions; for possession to give prescriptive right must be by an owner. That the priests never pretended to be owners—they did not hold even in trust. They were mere administrators of the pueblos.

Mr. Berrien observed, in answer to Mr. Soulé, that "the bill proposes to ascertain existing titles. The amendment proposes a means by which a title shall be conferred which does not exist. Mr. President, that answer might be in itself sufficient. The Congress of the United States, heretofore, in acting upon questions of this sort, has limited itself to the establishment of a tribunal by which these rights, which were secured to parties, which had been transferred by their government to ours, should be ascertained and determined. We have, in framing this bill, conformed to the ancient legislation of Congress, to the continued legislation of Congress."

And in relation to the claims of individuals whom the Senator from Louisiana desired to protect, he said:

"They have or they have not claims which ought to be sustained upon principles of equity and justice. Now, sir, if they have not claims which ought to be sustained, even supposing the Mexican government to have continued to subsist there, according to the laws and usages of that government—if the parties whose claim he wishes to protect, occupying these lands, had no claim which would have been respected by the Mexican government—then unquestionably they have no claim upon us. If, upon the other hand, they have any claim which would be entitled to respect by the laws, usages, and customs of the Mexican or Spanish governments, then, sir, by the provisions of the bill, the validity of these claims must be confirmed by the Congress of the United States."

Messrs. Dawson, Ewing, Hale, Foote, Butler, and Clay, joined in the debate. Mr. Butler, in the course of his remarks, said:

"You cannot by the acts of this commission divest any man of his right. All that you can do, as is frequently done, I presume, in every court where the common law prevails, is to issue a writ of partition to make their assertion to the court. Well,

the commissioner comes out, and says, I lay off this land to this man, and that land to another man, &c., letting individuals come, perhaps, and take off what the United States do not intend to claim. But if an individual has a prior claim, he is not even then by the operation of this bill divested of his right; he still has a right to come into a court; and not only a right to come into a court, but a right in that court to have all the forms and avail himself of the provisions of the Magna Charta. He cannot be divested of his land, except by the law and judgment of his peers."

Mr. Clay thus spoke :

"Mr. President, I wish, sir, to say a few words upon the particular amendment under consideration, and in reference to any proposition which may produce a new distinct rule of property from that, although he has no paper-title whatever; for in the amendment there is no requisition of a paper-title. Possession, *bona fide*, for twenty years, with the limits such as are prescribed in the amendment, is to invest the party with the title, whether he derives from any one of the governments which have successively existed in California any paper evidence of title or not.

"Now, Mr. President, before I speak more particularly of that amendment, let me call your attention to the rule for deciding this question of right on the part of the people of California, which is prescribed in the 11th section of the bill. In deciding on the validity of any claim brought before these tribunals—and they are specified in the provisions of this act—the authorities are to be governed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the law of nations, the laws, usages, and customs of the government from which the claim is derived, the principles of equity, the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States so far as they are applicable. It might be well to question, sir, why these various series of authorities were inserted in the bill, because, by the terms of the treaty, we are only bound to secure to the inhabitants of California their property as they held it under the government of Mexico prior to the cession of this country. It shows, however, the liberality with which the Committee on the Judiciary were governed in laying down the rules by which the rights of the claimants to property in California were to be settled.

"Now, sir, what are these expressions in relation to the laws—'the law of nations, the laws, usages, and customs of the government from which the claim is derived.' Now, sir, if this amendment proposed by the senator from Louisiana (Mr. Soulé) is not embraced in the laws, in the customs, or the usages of the government from which the claims spring, upon what foundation of justice or propriety shall we introduce a new rule to enlarge the

rights of the claimants in that country; and that, too, so loosely? Possession, *bona fide* possession, without paper-title, for a period of twenty years, in addition to all that is given by the laws, usages, and customs of the governments of Mexico, Spain, and California—that provision in the amendment is to convey a title to the party.

“Now, sir, it seems to me it is not required of us by good faith in the execution of the treaty. Now, with respect to these missions—amounting to nineteen, embracing some of the best soil of the country, and some of which, if I have been rightly informed, have passed into the hands of what are called administrators, who themselves now claim the property as the successors of the priests who formerly occupied them—can we tell to what extent this amendment may be carried, if we adopt it, in its application to cases of that kind—to the mission and to other lands which may be used for pasturage or other purposes? Can we see what will be the construction put upon it?

“Sir, it seems to me cautious legislation and prudence demand of us to go the full length of the treaty—to give to claims of land in that country of the old inhabitants the entire benefit of every stipulation contained in the treaty, giving them the benefit of their own laws, customs, and usages, but to stop there. If, however, upon further and more full information with respect to the condition of titles in that country, it shall be discovered that this act has done injustice to any—that there are individual owners, or individuals who are entitled to further legislation—why, sir, any defects which may arise in the actions of Congress upon the subject at this time can be cured by subsequent legislation, with fuller and more ample information before us than we now possess.”

Mr. Soulé's amendment was rejected by a vote of 37 to 11. Mr. Benton then moved to recommit the bill to the Committee on Public Lands with instructions. On this motion the yeas and nays being ordered, were as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Benton, Davis of Mississippi, Dodge of Wisconsin, Dodge of Iowa, Houston, Seward, Shields, and Soulé—8.

NAYS—Messrs. Atchison, Badger, Baldwin, Bell, Berrien, Borland, Cass, Clay, Dawson, Dayton, Dickinson, Downs, Ewing, Felch, Foote, Greene, Gwin, King, Mason, Morton, Norris, Phelps, Pratt, Rusk, Smith, Spruance, Turney, Underwood, Wales, and Walker—30.

The bill reported by the Judiciary Committee was then passed, and afterwards passed the House of Representatives, and became a law.

CHAPTER IV.

The further doings of Congress—Passage of Bills—Cheap rate of postage—General interest on the subject—House Bill reported, and amendment offered in the Senate—Remarks of Messrs. Seward, Dayton, Rusk—Substance of the Bill as passed—Debates on distribution of the public lands—History of their cession—Conflicting views—The River and Harbor Bill—Its late introduction—Objections to its consideration—The amount of appropriations asked for—Discussion by Messrs. Foote, Bright, Clay, Douglas, Cass, Borland, Davis, &c.—Causes of its failure.

UPON most of the subjects of importance which were brought up for consideration by Congress, there were long and obstinate debates, so that comparatively few bills were passed. Among those of general interest that became laws, besides the bill which we have noticed in the last chapter, were the bill reducing the rate of postage—the appropriations for West Point and for pensions in aid of the Colonization Society—and the general appropriation bills for the army and navy, and for the support of government.

But other important bills were lost, such as the Harbor and River, and the French Spoilation bills; the bill for making appropriations in aid of the American line of steamers, and one appropriating lands for insane asylums.

The bill for instituting a cheap rate of postage excited much attention throughout the Union. In England, the rates of postage had been reduced, and the new system was found to work well.

The first material reduction of postage was made in 1845; and it was at first supposed that the reduction would correspondingly reduce the income of the department, and require large appropriations to sustain the mail service. But the vast increase of letters and other matter sent through the several offices, soon convinced the Postmaster General, that the department, could sustain itself at the diminished rates, and he proposed a further reduction.

The house bill, as passed by a vote of 130 to 75, was reported upon in the Senate by Mr. Rusk, who proposed some amendments to it, the principal of which was, that instead of the rate on letters being uniformly or in all cases three cents, it should be three cents when prepaid, and five cents when not prepaid. Mr. Seward offered to amend by making the charge two cents, and prepaid in all cases. He argued that we could afford to carry letters as cheaply as they did in Great Britain, where the postage was two cents; because the payers of postage in this country, in proportion to the population, far exceed the same class of persons in Great Britain. He would find money for supplying the deficiency of revenue during the first years of the experiment by retrenching the expenses of the department.

In relation to public opinion on the subject, Mr. Seward said:

"We shall find ourselves obliged to reduce the postage again, if we adopt a system which is now submitted to us by the committee. The people are entitled to cheap postage, and they will have it, because it is their right; and it will turn out ultimately that cheap postage will be the most profitable to the government. Every man can see that if, instead of making the rates of postage, as they now stand, at five and ten cents postage, in the last reform we had adopted the proposition which is now proposed by either of these committees, the Post Office Department would have been richer, and the country would have been satisfied, and there would have been no necessity now for the new reform proposed by the bill before us. As to the argument that we may reduce it too low, I have nothing further to say in addition to what I have said, except that every argument that has been proposed against reducing the postage to two cents was proposed against reducing the postage to ten cents and five cents, and has been overruled by experience."

Mr. Dayton opposed Mr. Seward's amendment: "I am willing," he said, "to go for his doctrine of cheap postage; but the radical objection to this proposition is, that it will permit no letter to be carried at all, unless the man who mails it pays the postage. Now, I think that every man should have the option, when he is writing upon the business of another, to throw the burden of the postage upon the person to whom the business belongs. If you compel individuals to pay postage about matters with which they have no connection, the inevitable consequence is, that you very much diminish the amount of the correspondence of the country. That consequence will be inevitable."

Mr. Rusk remarked: "The House has passed a bill providing a uniform rate of three cents. The Postmaster General made an estimate that the difference between the three-cent rate of the bill passed by the House, and the two rates of three and five cents, as proposed by the amendment that I have offered, would be upwards of \$700,000. I thought on yesterday that I would vote for the amendment of Mr. Seward, now before the Senate; but upon reflection, I see it would be the destruction of the bill. It would be a reduction even of the rate fixed by the House of 50 per cent., which will make the difference I have alluded to over \$1,000,000. The result of that will be, that it will throw the Post Office Department upon the treasury, and that will endanger the whole scheme. We shall not only have that difficulty by this amendment, but also another one—that of immediately decreasing the payment of letters, because, at present, the country is not supplied with the necessary stamps. In my amendment I propose

that the Postmaster General shall supply the post office with stamps, and thus induce the people to get into the habit of prepaying; and it will be very easy hereafter to require them to prepay, as soon as they have got into the habit of having the means in their power. At half the offices they have not now the means to prepay, owing to a want of change and a want of stamps. So that, under these circumstances, we will have both these difficulties to meet, if we adopt the two-cent prepayment. I reported a bill—and to show that I am not inconsistent with myself, I reported a bill in support of the two-cent postage upon letters, and that bill I will support now. But it put off its operation for some time, until the Post Office Department should supply the country with the necessary means of carrying it out. And it did another thing: it repealed the franking privilege, so as to enable the department to carry on its operations, and furnish the necessary means for its support.”

The amendment of Mr. Seward was sustained by Mr. Chase, of Ohio, but did not succeed. The vote was largely against it.

In the course of an argument upon one of the amendments proposed, and to show the effect upon the business of the department and the revenue, Mr. Rusk remarked, that “from the report of the Post Office Department, the number of post offices in 1844, was fourteen thousand one hundred and three. The number of post offices in 1850, was eighteen thousand four hundred and seventeen. The post roads in the United States in 1844, were one hundred and forty-four thousand six hundred and eighty-seven miles, and in 1850, they were one hundred and seventy-eight thousand six hundred and twenty-two miles. The amount of transportation was, in 1844, in miles, thirty-five millions and four hundred and nine thousand six hundred and twenty-four. In 1850, it was forty-six millions five hundred and forty-one thousand four hundred and twenty-three. These same predictions of loss to revenue were made before the postage bill of 1845—in fact, more strong predictions. It was said that it was going to break down the department, and play the very mischief; and no man was more strong in his prediction of evil consequences which would result from the bill of 1845, than the then Postmaster General, who, before he went out from his term of service, recommended a further reduction. Everybody will give Mr. Johnson credit as an economical man. He recommended a further reduction of postage, upon the principle of its creating a larger revenue.”

Mr. Rusk was of opinion that the reduction could be made no otherwise for safety to the department as present, than as he had proposed, viz., three cents prepaid and five cents unpaid. He had given much attention to the subject; and if any other course

was pursued, there would be thrown a burden upon the treasury during the next year of eleven hundred and ninety thousand dollars. "But if," said Mr. Rusk, "we adopt the rate proposed in my substitute for the House bill, the next fiscal year will see the Post Office Department maintaining itself. If it do so, we shall then be in a condition, by making some reforms, to reduce the rates of postage still lower. My own opinion is, that the time is not far distant, if Congress will agree to make some reforms in the law, to do something with the enormous franking privilege, to curtail the expenses, as may be very easily done. We may reduce letter postage to a uniform rate of two cents prepaid."

Many other amendments were offered to the bill in relation to newspapers, three-cent pieces, contracts, &c., and it was finally passed.*

On several occasions during the session, the question of the disposition of the public lands, whether by ceding them to the States, or by voting to every settler a farm, was discussed. Mr. Seward seized one of these opportunities to urge the granting of lands "in limited quantities, gratuitously, to actual settlers only." He argued that the possessors of the "land sold become soon, if not immediately, citizens, and they will ultimately be a majority of the whole population of this country, supporting the government by their contributions, maintaining it by their arms, and wielding it for their own and the general welfare. To look, then, at this sub-

* In the bill as passed, the following rates were established:—

"All letters weighing not more than half an ounce are charged *three cents* if prepaid; and *five cents* if not prepaid, for all distances under three thousand miles;—over three thousand miles, they pay twice these rates. Upon newspapers the imposition of postage is quite complicated. The following statement shows the rates charged to regular subscribers, who pay postage quarterly in advance, comparing, also, the new postage with the old:

Miles.	Weekly.	Semi-Weekly.	Daily.
Under 50 (new bill)	5 cts.	10	25
Old rate	12	24	48
Over 50—under 300	10	20	50
Old rate	18	36	108
Over 300—under 1,000	15	30	75
Old rate	18	36	108
Over 1,000—under 2,000	20	40	100
Old rate	18	36	108
Over 2,000—under 4,000	25	50	125
Old rate	18	36	108
Over 4,000	30	60	150
Old rate	18	36	108

"Papers weighing less than an ounce and a half pay half these rates; papers measuring less than three hundred square inches pay one-fourth. On monthly and semi-monthly papers the same rates are paid, in proportion to the number of sheets, as weekly papers. All weekly papers are free within the county where they are published. The bill also provided for the coinage of a three-cent piece—a proposition of Mr. Dickinson of New York."

ject merely with reference to the revenue that might be derived from the sale of the lands, would be to commit the fault of that least-erected spirit that fell from heaven, whose

“Looks and thoughts
Were always downward bent, admiring more
The riches of Heaven's pavement, trodden gold,
Than aught, divine or holy, else enjoyed.”

“All will admit,” he said,—“all do admit—that the domain should be so administered as to favor the increase of population, the augmentation of wealth, the cultivation of virtue, and the diffusion of happiness.

“I do not say that land in this or in any other country ought to be, or ever could be divided and enjoyed equally. I assert no such absurdity. But I do say, with some confidence, that great inequality of landed estates here or elsewhere, tends to check population, enterprise, and wealth, and to hinder and defeat the highest interests of society.”

He further insisted that the partition of the vast public domain is inevitable. It has been going on ever since it was acquired.*

* Mr. Seward made a very interesting statement in relation to the history of the public lands:

“The United States, in the Revolution of 1776, supplanted Great Britain in the sovereignty over the region lying between the St. Lawrence and Louisiana, and stretching from the Atlantic coast to the banks of the Mississippi.

“The conquering States, practically independent of each other, were embarrassed by conflicting boundaries. The controversy was magnanimously ended by an agreement that each should release its claim of unappropriated territory for the common use and benefit.

“New York led the way, and ceded her claims, as well of ‘political jurisdiction’ as ‘of the right of the soil,’ ‘to be and inure to the use and benefit of such of the United States as should become members of the federal alliance of the said States, and for no other use or purpose whatsoever.’

“Virginia claimed the broad region lying north-west of the Ohio, and relinquished it in 1785, with a declaration that it should ‘be considered as a common fund for the use and benefit of such of the United States as have become or shall become members of the confederation or federal alliance of the said States, (Virginia inclusive,) according to their usual and respective proportions in the general charge and expenditure, and shall be faithfully and *bona fide* disposed of for that purpose, and for no other use or purpose whatsoever.’

“Massachusetts soon afterwards released to the United States, ‘for their benefit, Massachusetts inclusive.’

“Connecticut conveyed, in 1786, in the same form.

“South Carolina, in 1787, ceded, ‘for the benefit of the United States, South Carolina inclusive.’

“North Carolina, in 1790, conveyed by a deed containing the same declaration which had been used by Virginia; and Georgia completed the title of the United States by a cession on the same terms, attended with other stipulations which are not now important.

“The Constitution of the United States, adopted in the course of this great transaction, sanctioned it as follows:

“‘The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States;

He insisted that the demand of one dollar and twenty-five cents an acre was a tax upon the privilege of cultivating the public domain, and that it was a hindrance to its settlement. That as we are competitors, with the European agriculturists, we ought to invite the labor necessary to augment our productions. Gen. Jackson, he said, had declared that the time would soon arrive when the public domain ought to be considered a source of revenue; and Mr. Calhoun proposed a release of the lands to the States.

Mr. Dawson, of Georgia, said:—"Well, the question is propounded, what are we to do with the public lands? I say they are for the people, and they will go to the people whenever they are wanted. You cannot make the people take them. Why, we have given away more now than the people can occupy; and why? Because they all have homes now, and desire no more land at present.

"But, says the senator from New York, we must keep the control of these lands in the hands of the general government for the purpose of carrying out his principle, which I say is agrarianism in its latitude and longitude; for it places a limitation upon the right of any man in this country to occupy or own more than one hundred and sixty acres of land. The truth about it is, that the public lands are made a mere battle-door for political purposes; and any man who has any aspiration to the highest office in the gift of the people of this country, makes it his business to form his platform upon the public lands, and the rights and interests

and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State.'—Art. 14. sec. 3.

"The Continental Congress had previously adopted the ordinance of 1787, by which they established a government in the North-western Territory, and provided for its future subdivision into States. With a view to that great political purpose, the Constitution declared that 'new States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union.'—Art. 5, sec. 3.

"The purchase of Louisiana from France in 1803, the acquisition of Florida by a grant from Spain in 1819, the discovery of Oregon, and the recent purchase of New Mexico and Upper California, extended our domain along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico to the Rio Grande, and from its headwaters, across the Rocky Mountains and Snowy Hills, to the Pacific Ocean. The aggregate quantity of this national estate is fifteen hundred and eighty-four millions of acres, of which one hundred and thirty-four millions have been definitely appropriated, and there remain, including appropriations not yet perfected, fourteen hundred and fifty millions of acres.

"A large amount has been sold at \$1 25 per acre. Much has been appropriated to new States and Territories for internal improvements, for establishments of seats of government and for education. Lately, 95,000,000 of acres have been surrendered for bounties to soldiers, for railroads, and for cessions of swamp lands to the States.

"The aggregate of revenues derived from the public domain is one hundred and thirty-five million three hundred and thirty-nine thousand ninety-three dollars and ninety-three cents, showing an annual average revenue of one and a quarter million of dollars since the system of sales was adopted."

of the States are made subservient to the personal aspirations of individuals. The great principles of justice are violated, and the compacts between the States and the United States are violated, for the purpose merely of obtaining the support and approbation of the new States. This is true, and should be known, and I am prepared to tell it boldly. The common property, belonging in common to all, is to be taken away for the benefit of a few. Some allege one reason, and some allege another. Some say that it improves the value of the remainder; others, that the swamp and such lands are of no value to the United States, and they should be surrendered to the States; and others, again, that we cannot dispose of the public lands, and therefore, we must surrender them to the States. Now, this is a mere avoidance of the principle which should regulate our conduct—the principle of an equal participation in all the advantages of this government—an equal division of all the public property of the country, if you are going to divide it, and if you are not, then the principle of keeping the proceeds arising from this property for the equal payment of the debts which are due by the whole people.”

During the session, a bill was introduced by Mr. Walker, of Wisconsin, to cede the public lands to the States respectively in which they are situated, on condition that they granted and conveyed them to actual occupants only in limited quantities, for the costs of survey.

Mr. Benton advocated the bill, but proposed an amendment by which a certain revenue would be derived as the condition of the transfer. “The Secretary of the Treasury,” he said, “has shown us in his annual report, that, according to the best computation, there are ninety-five millions of acres of land to be passed over to those who have served in the late wars; and these ninety-five millions, at our market-prices, are worth one hundred and twenty millions of dollars. And he has shown that, at the rate at which the lands are taken by the purchasers, it will require sixteen years to dispose of these warrants; and, in the meantime, as these lands granted to soldiers are sold cheaper than the lands of the United States, they will monopolize the market, so that the United States cannot expect to make sales until these ninety-five millions are first disposed of.

“We learn from the Burlington (Iowa) papers that during the whole term set apart for the land sales at Fairfield, in that State, in November last, not a single bidder appeared! Not a bid for an acre during the term for which the lands were cried!

“During two weeks the finest lands in America were exposed for sale, the register and receiver attending, and receiving their per diem, \$6 a day. The lands were cried, and not a bid—not a

single person appeared to take them at the minimum price of a dollar and a quarter an acre!

"Here we are, then, with the United States actually thrown out of her own market for sixteen years, and that so completely that not only the lands which have been picked and culled cannot be sold by the United States, but the new lands, and the finest in the world, cannot be sold. We are in a condition in which we shall get no revenue from the public lands for sixteen years to come, as things now stand, and in the meantime we are to keep up the machinery of the land office, for the benefit of those who chase us out of the market—and these are no slight burdens. I showed items some weeks ago which made up \$700,000 annually for the expenses of the land system. Multiply that sum by sixteen—the number of years this is to continue—and you have a sum of \$11,200,000. That is one branch of the expense. Another is that of the expense of the registers and receivers, who now have more labor than ever in disposing of the public lands, for which they get no compensation. I think the labor is four times as great as heretofore.

"And I am glad that the senator from Wisconsin has brought forward a bill which brings the subject before the Senate and the people, and gives me an opportunity of bringing up, sooner than I could have in its own regular course, a proposition which I offered to the Senate in the shape of a bill two weeks ago, and which is intended to combine rapid acquisition of revenue with the great subject of extinguishing the federal title to the lands, and pass them rapidly into the hands of cultivators."

Mr. Walker, who believes in progress and distribution, said on one of these occasions, "that Congress should turn its attention first to the wants and necessities of the people as MAN, irrespective of his relations to wealth or station. Meet and provide for *these* wants, 'and all things else will be added.' I do not mean by this that you should provide by direct contribution; far from it. The intelligent workingmen of the country desire no such thing; they would scorn the proposition. Besides, they know full well, and by experience, that most of what you have to contribute—as in the case of the patent fund—was first drawn from their labor and pockets. But what they do desire—what they *demand* is, that you cease your class and job legislation; that you pass laws to operate equally upon all, and execute them with impartiality; that *they* may not be starved, but may have a fair chance in the race of enterprize. But above all, and as a means to this end, they demand that you shall no longer usurp the useful domain of the soil, and exclude them from a *rightful* occupancy of earth—leaving them but charity or sufferance tenants

to those upon whom you now lavish your unneeded bounty ; but that you surrender it to their free occupancy, as a means to them of life and independence—securing, at least, the indispensables of food, raiment, and shelter, through the exercise of their own energies and industry.

“But you may say the scheme as proposed—embracing free land, homestead exemption, and land limitation—is impracticable. Sir, this is but the tyrant’s answer to the call for reform in every age. Impracticable? Why, sir, it is not new; it was practised centuries ago. Its reverse—land monopoly—was only introduced with kings and monarchs; and its abandonment was the main cause of the fall of more than one ancient republic. The wonder of the wisest men has been that it should *not* have been practised through all ages since!”

On this subject, however, it was impossible to come to any definite conclusion. Some were for distribution to actual settlers by the general government, and for appropriations in aid of internal improvements; others for the distribution proposed by Mr. Walker, and others for dividing and ceding the lands to the several States, according to their population; and others, again, for retaining them as a source of public revenue. Amidst these conflicting views every project for the present fell to the ground.

The River and Harbor bill, in which all sections of the Union were deeply interested, came up for the consideration of the Senate at the very close of the Session, on the first of March, two days only remaining, and the general appropriation bills for the expenses of government had not yet been passed.* Mr. Hunter, the chairman of the Finance Committee, objected to its consideration, because he had been informed by experienced members of the House of Representatives that unless the Civil and Diplomatic bill was sent down to that body that morning, there was some doubt of its passage.

The friends, however, of the River and Harbor bill determined to force its consideration, and take the responsibility, whatever might be the result. Some who did not favor all the items of the bill, but who wished to have their opinions on internal improvements go to the country, voted in the negative on the motion to lay it on the table; so that the vote to consider it stood 30 to 23.

Mr. Davis, of Massachusetts, who reported the bill from the Committee on Commerce, stated that he did not feel himself at

* The first part of the session had been consumed in fruitless discussions. The River and Harbor Bill passed the House the 19th Feb., and was reported in the Senate the 25th. The Civil and Diplomatic bill passed the House the 25th Feb., and was referred in the Senate the 28th.

liberty, owing to the want of time, to go into any particular explanations; "but," said he, "I will generally state that these appropriations spread themselves, I believe, over nearly the entire country, and amount to about \$2,300,000, according to the information which I have received, not varying materially from that amount.* They are applied to the harbors upon the sea-coast, but more especially the lakes and rivers of the interior; and I may add, that by far the greater majority of the appropriations apply to works that have been long since begun by the government; and I may also add, that many of these works are now so much out of repair—being many of them but temporary structures, built for the purpose of experiment originally—that if the country expects those who are interested in these works to continue in the enjoyment of them, it seems to be necessary to put them in the proper condition."

We do not propose to enter into a full report of the discussion which ensued upon this bill, and was continued to the last day of the session, to the great peril of the appropriation bills.† But as

* There were appropriations for works within the States to the following amounts:

Maine	\$35,000	North Carolina	117,500
Vermont	15,000	Connecticut	21,000
New York	355,500	Georgia	50,000
Pennsylvania	55,000	Rhode Island	5,000
Ohio	120,000	Delaware	90,000
Michigan	160,000	New Jersey	15,000
Illinois	27,176	Louisiana	105,000
Wisconsin	95,000	Alabama	50,000
Iowa	20,000	Virginia	20,000
Missouri	50,000	Texas	95,700
Maryland	40,000	South Carolina	25,000
Massachusetts	55,500		
Amount			1,622,376

Miscellaneous appropriations as follows:

Dredge-boat on Lake Champlain	\$9,000
" " " Erie	20,000
" " " Michigan	20,000
Survey of the N. W. lakes	25,000
Repairs of harbors on Atlantic coast	20,000
Ohio River, above Louisville	80,000
Mississippi below the rapids, Ohio below the falls at Louisville, and the Missouri and Arkansas	240,000
Illinois and Tennessee rivers, (50,000 each)	100,000
Upper and lower rapids, Mississippi	50,000
Mississippi river, survey of above St. Anthony's falls	5,000
Dredge boats for Mississippi, Ohio, Missouri, Arkansas, and other western rivers	100,000
Ohio River, Cumberland Dam	50,000
Amount	\$719,000

Total specific and miscellaneous appropriations \$2,341,376.

† At four o'clock in the afternoon of the last day of the session, this bill was still under discussion, and an appeal was made to the members by the chairman of the Finance Committee to give way and allow the general appropriation bills, which

the opinions of the principal speakers expressed the various sentiments which prevailed throughout the country on the policy of the measure, or exhibited the anxiety of their constituents about it, they belong, in part, to the political history of the time. Some amendments were offered to the bill, and it was urged by some of its most zealous friends that, as the time was short, the amendments would interfere with its passage.

Mr. Foote, of Mississippi, avowed his intention not to give a vote on the bill that he did not believe was calculated "actually to advance the cause of internal improvements in the country, as connected with the great interests of internal and existing commerce." He was most anxious to pass it properly amended, so as to embrace measures only of national interest. Any other course of legislation, in his judgment, was mischievous, "especially," he said, "if it be true, as asserted in the public prints of the country, that this bill is gotten up with a view to accommodate different sections whose votes are needed to carry it through, and that ninety-odd Congressional districts are benefited by the bill in the present shape, so as to enable the friends of it to carry it by means of a combination of votes obtained, I will not say by bargaining, and intrigue, and management, but in a manner which, if known to the people of this country, would justly excite their highest abhorrence and disgust."

Mr. Bright, of Indiana, said: "A few general remarks will indicate my course upon this bill. I voted to take up the bill, not for the purpose of voting for it in its present shape; for if I have the alternative presented to me of taking the bill as it is, or laying it on the table, I shall vote against it. There are various items in it that are not national in their character; that have not been estimated for by any of the departments authorized to estimate for such work; that have been put in for the purpose of enhancing the value of private property at particular points. I will not vote for the bill if it has any appropriation in it for either the Tennessee, the Arkansas, or the Illinois rivers. I would not vote for it if it had an appropriation in it for any river within my own State, unless I believed the improvement to be national in its character. None of the rivers I have named do I believe to be national in their character. There is a principle involved in this thing which has formed a part of the history of the party to which I am attached; notwithstanding that I believe the wants of western rivers, such as the Ohio and Mississippi, to be such that their involved an amount of thirty or forty millions of dollars, to pass. After much objection, and some threats to insist on the passage of this bill at the hazard of the others, a motion to make it the special order for eight o'clock prevailed. The Civil and Diplomatic, and Army and Navy bills, were then passed, but the River and Harbor bill was not again called up.

improvement is almost indispensably necessary to commerce and to the protection of life. I will not violate a principle by voting for these tributary rivers, merely for the sake of getting appropriations upon the Mississippi and Ohio. If the bill can be narrowed down to that point, so as to embrace only appropriation for works national in their character, and which have been estimated for by the various departments that have been authorized to estimate, I will vote for it. Whenever we reach that point at which I shall become convinced that it is impossible to narrow it down to these points, I shall vote to lay it upon the table."

Mr. Clay, of Kentucky, was opposed to making any amendments now. He said: "There are three modes of defeating a bill. One is by meeting it boldly, straightforward, coming up to the mark, and rejecting it. Another is by amendments to improve it, to make it better than it was. And whether it is the motive of senators or not, it is the result according to the rules of Parliament, and the remark applies to those who are proposing amendments. The third mode is by speaking out against time when there is very little time left. I have risen to say to the friends of the bill, that if they desire the bill to pass, I trust that they will vote along with me against all amendments, and come to a speedy and rapid decision upon the bill. You will, under the idea of amending the bill, get nothing.

"I think it very likely that there are some items in this bill that ought not to be there; and can you expect otherwise in any human work, where there are thirty, forty, or fifty different items to be passed upon? Do you expect perfection, absolute perfection? If you do, you expect what you will never attain. I shall vote for the good in the bill; and I shall vote, for the sake of that good, for anything that happens to be bad in the bill. I take it as a man takes his wife, 'for better or worse.'"

Mr. Clay insisted that the appropriation, large as it was, did not exceed, to any alarming extent, the expenditure which ought to be made.

He said: "It is a most remarkable fact, that those administrations which have been most hostile to the doctrine and power of internal improvements have been precisely the administrations in which the most lavish appropriations have been made. Thus we are told this morning, that eight hundred thousand dollars were appropriated during the administration of General Jackson, and three hundred thousand dollars during the first year of the administration of Mr. Van Buren. None has been appropriated within the last three or four years; and now, in consequence of the deficiency and neglect of duty, heretofore, of Congress, because the sum of two millions three hundred thousand dollars is

presented, we are to be startled by conventional errors and difficulties, and driven from the duty of propriety.

"Many of these appropriations relate to the great valley of the Mississippi—the Mississippi with her noble great contributions—the Red River, Wabash, Arkansas, Tennessee, Cumberland, Ohio, constitute a part of one great system, and if that system be not national, I should like to know what is national." * * * * He alluded to the great sums appropriated for California, and all around the margin of the coast of the Atlantic, the Mexican Gulf, and the coast of the Pacific.

"Everywhere," he said, "we pour out, in boundless and unmeasured streams, of the treasury of the United States; but go to the great interior of the vast valley of the Mississippi, and every cent is contested and denied to us. Why, if you talk about commerce, we have all sorts of commerce there, foreign and domestic; and I have no hesitation to say at this moment that the domestic commerce from the lakes and valley of the Mississippi is greatly superior in magnitude and importance, to all the foreign commerce of the country that leads to these vast expenditures. Sir, I call upon the northwestern senators—I call upon the western senators, and senators from all quarters of the country—to recollect that we are part of one common country, and that we cannot endure, from day to day, and from month to month, to see—in consequence of the existence of snags in the Mississippi river, which can be removed at a trifling expense—hundreds of our fellow-citizens drowned, killed by the collisions, and in consequence of the destruction of the boats which are navigating these rivers, for the want of some little application of the means of a common government.

"I have been drawn into these observations contrary to any purpose for which I came to the Senate to-day. Here is the measure before us. If gentlemen choose to exhaust what remains of the session in useless efforts at amendment, the effect of which, beyond all question, is to destroy the bill—if they choose to exhaust it by speeches made from time to time—let them not charge us with defeating the appropriation bills. We are ready—for one, I am ready—to take up this bill and pass upon every item, item by item, without making another single word of remark—without making any speech whatever—and then take up the appropriation bill and pass it."

Mr. Douglas, of Illinois, briefly remarked:

"I desire to have the vote taken very soon, and have the question decided one way or the other, so that we may proceed at once to the other business of the Senate. If the senator will reduce the amount of money appropriated in this bill to the esti-

mates of the Department—in other words, to the amount asked for by the administration charged with the execution of the works—and will confine it to the Mississippi, its national tributaries, and such harbors upon the ocean and upon the lakes as necessarily require it, I will cheerfully vote for the bill. I am anxious to vote for those works which are of a national character. I have done so on former occasions, and I will cheerfully do so at this time, if the Senate will give me an opportunity of doing it. But when I look into this bill, and find that there are about two millions and a half to be expended, while the administration asks for only about one million dollars—when I find that there are works of a merely local character, which cannot be considered national in any sense, and which can only subserve to promote private speculation—when I find them introduced into this bill, not only without the endorsement of the administration, but in opposition to its wishes, as may be inferred from the fact that they did not recommend them—I cannot give the bill in its present shape my support.”

Mr. Borland, of Arkansas, said :

“In regard to the measure itself, it has been said that it violates some great principle. It is very easy to say so, but very difficult, I apprehend, to show it. As I have said on a former occasion, I claim to be a strict constructionist of the constitution. I claim that this government can exercise no power not conferred upon us by the constitution. I hold that this bill, in its leading features, requires the exercise of no power not conferred by the constitution. But, as there is no time now to go into the argument upon that subject, I shall leave it with this general declaration, that the great leader of the democratic party to which I belong—who has been recognized as the leader *par excellence*, who is quoted on all occasions as the great leader, and whose name and whose views have been invoked to justify legislation, including a very large class of measures—advocated in the clearest and strongest terms improvements upon our harbors and rivers not a particle more national than the leading ones in this bill. I speak, of course, of General Jackson.”

He also adverted to the vast commerce of the lakes and the Mississippi, and insisted that the inhabitants of the West had a right to claim a larger share of appropriations than those on the Atlantic. He believed it was a growing feeling in the West, that if not given to them freely, “they would wait no longer.” He said that the appropriations heretofore had been too small, not enough to finish any work, and it was a commendable feature in this bill that they are now sufficiently generous.

Mr. Dawson, of Georgia, who is a Whig, followed Mr. Borland,

who is a Democrat, and opposed the bill. He attacked it for the unnecessary and lavish expenditure of money, for its appropriations without estimates based upon surveys, and for objects which were not in the contemplation of the constitution. He continued:

“When I hear the assertion of the senator from Arkansas, that the West has not had her share, and that she intends to have it; that if you do not give it to her, she will take it—when this is reiterated both sides of the Mississippi, what does it mean? Why, it means that the constitution of your country shall be made subservient to the majority, in order to make appropriations to suit the convenience and purposes of that majority—that your limitations and restrictions are to be abandoned, and your constitution is to be a piece of India-rubber, to expand or contract according to the force applied to it.

“Now, look at this measure again. You and I understand this business pretty well. The whig party are in power in the executive department; the democratic party are in power in the legislative department. Who is to be responsible for this measure? In 1844, when the great democratic party came into power, with their conservative opinions and their constitutional views, they laid down a platform, and the man who was their great and worthy chief in that day put his foot upon the exercise of this power by Congress; and from that day to this it has never been disturbed. Will that great democratic party now aid in galvanizing this measure? Will they abandon the principles upon which they stand, to rally, not under the old whig banner, but far away north of that, under principles which the whig party never sustained? The whig party had a construction, which was this: A general system of measures for internal improvements for the advancement of the commerce of the country; and whenever you stepped beyond what was general, it was unconstitutional. The democratic party scarcely admitted anything to be constitutional, even in this way. But now here we are marching side by side at the beat of the reveille. I find men in different positions marching up to take rank in order to carry this question.”

Mr. Cass, of Michigan, expressed his views fully. He said:

“If there are any public men who, above almost all others, could neither deny nor conceal their opinions upon this whole subject, I may claim to be one of them. During the administration of General Jackson, I was at the head of the War Department between five and six years, and am responsible for all the estimates sent to Congress, and upon which the several acts of appropriation for river and harbor improvements were based; and for the two sessions of the Senate since I have been a member, during which bills have passed for these objects, I have ad-

vocated and voted for them, and stated fully and repeatedly as I do now, the principles of my action. Who but the veriest tool of party, and for the worst purpose, could represent me, under these circumstances, as endeavoring to conceal my views, or to deceive the country, as to their extent or limitation?

"Now, what are my views? And to this plain question I shall give an answer equally plain. They are to be found in the annual message of General Jackson of 1834.* I was at that time a member of his cabinet, and was consulted by him in relation to this exposition of his opinions; and I concurred in them then, and have preserved my fealty till this day."

Gen. Cass also referred to the opinions of Mr. Calhoun, in his celebrated report on the memorial on the Memphis Convention, in which Mr. Calhoun made this declaration, "There is not the least probability that Congress will ever abandon the exercise of this power, (the power to improve rivers and harbors.) It has not only the right, as has been shown, but it is its duty to exercise it—a duty, under the constitution, to the States immediately interested, and which are, by one of its provisions, prohibited from adopting the only means by which they could themselves regulate their commerce with each other."

Mr. Cass admitted the power of Congress to make river and harbor improvements; but there were limitations to the right. He said that a remark had been made that a Democrat who adhered

* Gen. Jackson's views were thus expressed:—

"There is another class of appropriations for what may be called, without impropriety, internal improvements, which have always been regarded as standing upon different grounds from those to which I have referred. I allude to such as have for their object the improvement of our harbors, the removal of partial and temporary obstructions in our navigable rivers, for the facility and security of our foreign commerce. The grounds upon which I distinguished appropriations of this character from others have been stated to Congress. I will now only add that, at the first session of Congress under the new constitution, it was provided by law, that all expenses which should accrue from and after the 15th day of August, 1789, in the necessary support and maintenance, and repairs of all light-houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, erected, placed, or sunk, before the passage of the act, within any bay, inlet, harbor, or port of the United States, for rendering the navigation thereof easy and safe, should be defrayed out of the treasury of the United States; and further, that it be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to provide by contracts, with the approbation of the President, for rebuilding when necessary, and keeping in good repair the light-houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, in the several States, and for furnishing them with supplies. Appropriations for similar objects have been continued from that time to the present without interruption or dispute. As a natural consequence of the increase and extension of our foreign commerce, ports of entry and delivery have been multiplied and established, not only upon our sea-board, but in the interior of our country, upon our lakes and navigable rivers. The convenience and safety of this commerce have led to the gradual extension of these expenditures; to the erection of light-houses, the placing, planting, and sinking of buoys, beacons, and piers, and to the removal of partial and temporary obstructions in our navigable rivers, and the harbors upon our great lakes, as well as on the sea-board."

to the Baltimore resolutions could not consistently vote for these improvements. The resolution disavowing the right to establish a general system of internal improvements, originated with Silas Wright. "What he meant, and what the democratic party mean to repudiate, is the power to spread a great system of public works through the whole country, embracing roads, canals, rivers, and harbors, and ponds, too, for aught I know—a system by which the Union was to be covered with roads and canals as by a net work, and whose consequences, as well financially, in the enormous expenditure it would entail, as morally and practically, by the corruptions it would lead to, no man can seriously contemplate without alarm. Why, sir, a fact which has just been stated by an honorable member, that at the time of the Maysville veto, there were propositions before committees of Congress for lines of roads to the amount of \$106,000,000, as I understood him, for I have not time to refer to the documents, places in a striking light the dangers we were exposed to, and from which we escaped by the firmness and wisdom of Andrew Jackson; and by the adherence of the democratic party to the principles of this great act, we are yet safe from this peril. They have taken roads and canals from the grasp of the general government, and all the rivers, except a few, which can be considered national in their character by the contributions they furnish to the commerce of the country. A great system of internal improvements is exploded, and the powers of the government are confined within their legitimate boundaries—the right to regulate commerce, and to improve natural reservoirs, and some of the principal natural avenues of communication."

Gen. Cass advocated the appropriations for the harbors on the lakes, but made objection in detail to many of the items in the bill, and, as Mr. Dawson had done, to the want of proper surveys and estimates. He also was opposed to such an immense outlay, at a time when the government could not spare the money. He took the position, that the appropriations for the Mississippi River are rendered constitutional by the great extent of country drained by its tributaries; that it becomes national, because ramified through a great number of States, and accommodating a great number of people. Indeed the appropriation for removing obstructions from the Mississippi met with general favor. Mr. Rusk said that this great river should be the leading object, in a bill of appropriations for internal improvements; and it would be only justice to give one million of the appropriation for the Mississippi and its tributaries.

Mr. Davis, of Mississippi, made a long speech against the bill, and the whole system of internal improvements, as opposed to the constitution, and to the doctrine and usages of the democratic party,

and that whoever, claiming to be of that party, sustained this bill had by that act gone over to the policy of the whig party. Mr. Borland, who also claimed to stand on the democratic platform, but who had strenuously advocated this bill, replied in strong terms to this charge, and showed by the minutes of the Secretary in relation to the passage of the River and Harbor bill, of 1847, that Mr. Dix, and other Democrats, had no doubt on that occasion of the constitutionality of the appropriations for the objects which were specified."

In the present instance, most of the democratic members favored appropriations for internal improvements, under certain restrictions, but objected principally to the large amounts asked for, to the want of surveys and estimates, and the unfitness of some of the objects. In the propriety of these objections a portion of the whig members agreed with them. Had not the bill asked for so much, it would have undoubtedly passed; or had there been time enough, before the close of the session, to prune off the most offensive items, the same result might have been expected. Messrs. Davis, of Mass., Bell, Dodge, Ewing, and other Senators, entered into the discussion, and urged the immediate passage of the bill, but their efforts were unavailing at that late hour.

CHAPTER V.

New York Legislature—Bill for the enlargement of the canals—Resignation of twelve members of the Senate—Extra session—Constitutional Conventions of Ohio, Maryland, and Virginia—Expedition against Cuba—Arrests of Gen. Henderson, Gen. Quitman, and others—Protest of Quitman—Trial of Henderson—Proclamation of the President—Instructions to the Marshal in New York—Arrest of O'Sullivan and others—Hulsemann and Webster—Communication in regard to Kossuth and his companions—Amin Bey and the President.—MEXICO—Insurrection in Guanajuato—Inauguration of Arista—Indian depredations—Condition of Yucatan—Financial difficulties of Mexico—Wretched state of the country—Tehuantepec grant annulled—Navarro imprisoned—Defeat of the Indians in Yucatan—Congress convened—Proposal of the Minister of Finance—Railroad from Vera Cruz to Acapulco.

In the month of April, the session of the Legislature of New York was abruptly terminated by the resignation of twelve of the members of the Senate. We will endeavor to state distinctly the facts connected with this unusual occurrence.

The constitution makes provision out of the surplus revenue of the canals, in each year, for the enlargement of these great State works:* and, also, forbids the creation of any debt beyond

* At the time the last constitution, in 1846, was adopted, it was ascertained that

one million of dollars, except to repel invasion and suppress insurrection. At this time there was a majority of the whig party in the legislature, whose views on the subject of internal improvements, as we have just seen by the Congressional debate on the River and Harbor Bill, are less rigid than those of their opponents. The great increase of produce and trade, the competition of railroads in the matter of transportation, and the slow process of the enlargement of the canals by the yearly application of the surplus revenues, seemed to create a necessity for a speedy completion of the work, and induced the dominant party to bring in a bill for that object. This bill directed nine millions of dollars to be raised on the credit of the surplus revenue, by certificates issued for that purpose, and payable as the revenue was received, and with this money to complete this enlargement at once. It also relieved certain railroads from the payment of tolls. The democratic party resisted the measure as unconstitutional and impolitic; and proposed as an amendment that the constitutionality of the bill should be determined, or the sense of the people obtained, before any contracts were made or certificates issued. At the same time legal counsel gave their opinions on both sides of the question; but the majority determined to carry through their favorite scheme, and in the House of Assembly the bill was passed by a large majority (76 to 21). It being evident that it would also pass the Senate if brought to a vote, and the democratic members of that body being resolved on defeating it, twelve of the fifteen resigned their seats; and another avowed his intention to resign, if the bill was passed; in which case there would be only nineteen members present, the constitution requiring two-fifths of the whole, or twenty members to be present. When the bill came up for a third reading, there were 17 votes in its favor, and 2 against it. No quorum being present, the bill was laid upon the table. The Senate thereupon voted to adjourn *sine die*; in which resolution the House concurred. On the same day the democratic members of the legislature, comprising fifteen Senators and forty Representatives, issued an address to their constituents in justification of their procedure. They brought severe charges against

the debt contracted on account of the canals, was over \$17,000,000, and other debts of the State over \$5,000,000.

The constitution then provided, that from the revenues of the canals (repairs being first paid) there should be set apart \$1,300,000 for nine years, and then \$1,700,000 towards paying principal and interest of the canal debt. That \$350,000 should be then applied out of the same revenues to pay off the funded debt of the State. Next, there was to be paid from the same source \$200,000 each year, for the expenses of the government; and then the balance of the surplus revenue of the canals was to be devoted, in each fiscal year, to the enlargement of the Erie canal, and the Genessee Valley and Black River canals. The revenue from the canals is \$3,000,000 or more.

their opponents of mal-administration of the financial affairs of the State; and denounced the proposed measure as a palpable violation of the express provisions of the constitution, and as an expedient to secure to their opponents the political supremacy in the State. The whig members also issued a long address to the people of the State, in which they denounced the conduct of the resigning senators, as a wilful violation of the constitution which they had sworn to support, and of the right of the majority to rule; and they defended at length the constitutionality and expediency of the bill. By this rupture the whole business of the government was arrested, the necessary bills for expenses not having been reached at the time of the adjournment. The Governor, therefore, issued a proclamation appointing an election of senators in the place of those who had resigned, some of whom were re-elected, and also convened an extra-session of the legislature. The Message of the Governor was strongly in favor of the immediate enlargement of the canals, and discussed the question at length, arguing in favor of its constitutionality and expediency. At the same time fifty-six of the one hundred and twelve members of the convention who framed the constitution, published an address, in which they expressed the opinion that the bill violated the scope and spirit of the financial article in the constitution.

This bill, however, which had been the subject of so much contention, was finally passed;* there being in the Senate 26 in favor and 9 against it.

Several of the States were engaged at this time in remodelling their constitutions.

In Ohio, a convention which had been in session for six months, on the 10th March completed the new constitution, which was submitted to the people for their sanction. It embraced sixteen articles, and provided for freedom of religion, equality of political rights, trial by jury, the *habeas corpus*, freedom of speech and of the press, and non-imprisonment for debt. The right of suffrage was vested in all free white male adult citizens. All patronage was taken from the General Assembly, judicial and executive officers to be elected by the people; and the public printing to be given to the lowest responsible bidder. No new county to be formed without the sanction of the majority of voters in all the counties of which the boundaries would be changed. Provision to be made for the liquidation of the State debt; and no new debt created by the General Assembly, except in case of

* It was afterwards decided by the Supreme Judicial Tribunal of the State, that the bill was unconstitutional; and as many certificates had been issued and contracts made, the effect was embarrassing, and to some extent disastrous.

war or insurrection, or to a limited amount to meet any temporary deficiency; and funds borrowed for these purposes used for no other. No special act of incorporation to be granted; but a general law, subject to alteration or repeal, might be passed, under which associations may be formed. The General Assembly was prohibited from assuming the debt of any county, town, or city; from loaning the credit of the State to, or becoming a stockholder in any corporation or association. No divorce to be granted by the Legislature. An article prohibiting licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors to be separately voted upon. Provisions was made for law reform, and for amendments to the constitution from time to time. Every twenty years the question of a Constitutional Convention to be submitted to vote. The details of the legislative, executive, and judicial systems, were not essentially different from those which generally prevail.

A new Constitution was also adopted by Maryland. It contained the usual provisions regarding the legislative, judiciary, and executive heads. The other provisions were substantially as follows: The franchise was vested in all free white male citizens, who have resided a year within the State, and six months within the county. A conviction or larceny or any infamous crime operates as a disfranchisement. The only religious test for office is a declaration of belief in the Christian religion; or, in case of Jews and others, of a belief in a future state of rewards and punishments. Participation in a duel, or bribery, disqualify from holding office. The legislature has power to provide for the disposition or removal of the free colored population. Clergymen are not eligible as members of the legislature. No religious sect or teacher, as such, without express legislative permission, can receive any gift or sale of land, except five acres for a church, parsonage, or burial-ground. The legislature can grant no divorces, nor pass any laws abolishing the relation of master and slave. The credit of the State cannot be loaned. No State debt can be contracted without the imposition of a tax sufficient to meet the interest, and liquidate the debt in fifteen years. Corporations to be formed only under general laws; stockholders liable to an amount equal to their shares; no officer of a corporation to borrow money of it. Imprisonment for debt abolished. Lotteries were prohibited after 1858. Provisions made for digesting and codifying the laws, and for simplifying the forms of legal procedure. The will of the people to be taken every ten years whether a convention for amending the constitution shall be called.

In Virginia, likewise, a constitutional convention was held. The principal subject of discussion was the basis of representation. A

proposition was made to apportion the representation on the basis of the white population: but it was struck out by a vote of 65 to 56. The section of the State east of the Blue Ridge, with about four-ninths of the free population, pays nearly two-thirds of the taxes. They desired that one-half of the representatives should be apportioned in the ratio of the voters; and the other half in that of taxation; which would secure the preponderance to the eastern section. The west demanded that representation should be in the ratio of the voters, which would give the political supremacy to their portion of the State.

A compromise was effected after an earnest and prolonged debate. The House consists of 150 members; the Senate of 50. Eastern Virginia, with 401,540 whites, 45,783 free colored persons, and 409,793 slaves, in all 857,116 inhabitants, has 82 Representatives and 20 Senators. Western Virginia, with 492,609 whites, 8,124 free colored, and 62,233 slaves, 563,965 in all, has 68 Representatives and 30 Senators. A new apportionment is to be made in 1865. A provision was adopted prohibiting the legislature from passing any law for the emancipation of slaves.

In the early part of this year, bands of adventurers continued to organize in various parts of the United States for the invasion of Cuba. Funds were supposed to have been furnished from that island. New Orleans, Savannah, and places on the coast of Florida, appear to have been the principal points at which the parties destined for the expedition were to concentrate. Many arrests were made in the latter part of the preceding year; among them were Gen. Narisco Lopez, Col. Bell, Col. John Picket, Col. Theodore O'Hara, Maj. Hawkins, Gen. John Henderson, Gen. D'Augustin, and others. Gov. Quitman, of Mississippi, was arrested on the 4th February, and on the same day resigned his office. In a proclamation which he issued, he asserted that he was unconscious of having violated any law of the country, and that he was ready to meet the charges against him. He stated that the arrest and removal of the head of the executive department of the government, would be both a degradation to a sovereign state, and occasion incalculable injury and disaster to her citizens, as the constitution had not anticipated such an event as the forcible abduction of the Governor; and consequently no other person could be regularly appointed to perform his duties, unless he vacated the office by resignation. He further stated that he had endeavored to avert the necessity for such a step, as soon as he learned that an attempt would be made to remove him from the State, by offering the United States authorities ample pledges or securities to appear at New Orleans, and meet the charges against him, as soon as his term of office should

have expired, which would be on the 10th of January, 1852, but that this proposition was not accepted.

Gen. Henderson was tried at New Orleans, in March; and such was the conflicting nature of the evidence that the jury could not agree, there being eight for conviction and four for acquittal. Another attempt was made with a similar result—the jury at this time being equally divided. At the third and last trial, there were eleven for acquittal. It being now evident that no conviction could be obtained, a *nolle prosequi* was entered, and Gen. Henderson liberated. As the testimony could be made no stronger in the remaining cases than in this, Gen. Quitman and the other parties arrested, were all discharged.

Rumors, however, continued to be rife that the preparations for the expedition were not abandoned. The President, under date of April 25, issued his proclamation, attributing the project mainly to foreigners, “who have dared to make our shores the scenes of guilty and hostile preparations against a friendly power.” These expeditions, he stated, could only be regarded as adventures for plunder and robbery, undertaken in violation alike of the law of nations and of this country; by the latter of which they are punishable by fine and imprisonment. He warned all citizens of the United States who connect themselves with such expeditions, that they thereby “forfeit all claims to the protection of this Government, or any interference on their behalf, no matter to what extremities they may be reduced in consequence of their illegal conduct;” and called upon every civil and military officer of the Government to use his efforts for the arrest of all who thus offend against the laws of their country.

In New York, information was given to the United States Marshal, Mr. Tallmadge, that a vessel had been chartered by persons concerned in the proposed expedition, and was anchored in the Bay, provided with munitions of war, and waiting for the arrival of a large number of men. On searching the harbor, no vessel answering this description was found, but a steamboat lying at a pier on the North River fell under suspicion, and was seized by the United States authorities. This was the *Cleopatra*, a large boat, formerly employed on Long Island Sound. The forward hold and boiler room were filled with coal, of which a large quantity also covered the forward deck. She had on board a great number of empty water casks, and a considerable quantity of gunpowder. She was placed in charge of a guard of marines from the Navy Yard, and no communication was permitted with persons on shore.*

Soon after the seizure of the *Cleopatra*, the collector of New

* The vessel was afterwards restored to her owners.

York received notice that a vessel engaged for the transportation of emigrants from South Amboy to Sandy Hook, was lying at her wharf, at the former place, under suspicious circumstances. Officers were immediately despatched to the spot; the vessel was seized and ordered to anchor at Perth Amboy. One of the marshals is said to have disguised himself as an adventurer, and intelligence was obtained which resulted in the arrest of five persons, who were held to bail in the sum of \$3,000 each to appear for examination. These were John L. O'Sullivan, formerly editor of the *Democratic Review*, Captain Lewis, formerly of the steamer *Creole*, Pedro Sanches, a Spanish resident of New York, Dr. D. H. Burnett, and Major Louis Schlesinger, of the Hungarian patriots. The offence with which they were charged was the violation of the Neutrality Act of April 20, 1818, in preparing the means for a military expedition against Cuba. They were held to bail for their appearance at the next circuit Court. These gentlemen seemed to be indifferent to the consequences which the cause they were charged with being engaged in was likely to bring upon them, and they were not without many friends and sympathizers, who regarded Cuban emancipation as a part of the mission of Young America.

At this period the Cuban expeditions seemed to have entirely miscarried—the adventurers to have been dispersed, and even many of them indebted to charity for the means of returning to their homes. But subsequent events, which will be narrated hereafter, proved that the attempt was by no means abandoned.

We have elsewhere noticed the correspondence which occurred between Chevalier Hulsemann, the Austrian minister, and Mr. Webster, Secretary of State, in relation to the employment of Mr. Dudley Mann by President Taylor, to obtain reliable information in regard to Hungary, and the probable issue of the revolutionary movements there. The principal correspondence will be found in the fifth volume of the *Register*. Subsequently Mr. Hulsemann, in reply to Mr. Webster's celebrated letter of the 21st December, stated that the opinion of the Imperial government continued unchanged, as to the propriety of the mission of Mr. Mann, but unwilling to disturb its friendly relations with the United States, declined "all ulterior discussion of that annoying incident." That Austria would ask nothing more than the practical application in future of the principles of non-intervention, announced by President Fillmore in his last message, and was "sincerely disposed to remain in friendly relations with the government of the United States, so long as the United States shall not deviate from those principles." To this Mr. Webster briefly replied, that the President regretted that the despatch was

not satisfactory, but was gratified to learn that Austria desired to continue friendly relations, and approved of the sentiments of his message, in accordance with which he intended to act. Mr. Webster further said, that the government of the United States was equally unwilling as that of Austria to prolong the discussion; but he assured Mr. Hulsemann that the principles and policy avowed by the United States (as set forth in his letter) "are fixed and fastened upon them by their character, their history, and their position among the nations of the world; and it may be regarded as certain that these principles and this policy will not be abandoned or departed from until some extraordinary change shall take place in the general current of human affairs."

Mr. Webster, in the latter part of February, addressed a note to Mr. John P. Brown, Dragoman of the United States legation at Constantinople, then in this country, asking information concerning the condition of the Hungarian exiles in Turkey, and the intention of the Turkish government in regard to them. To this Mr. Brown replied, "That in September, 1849, when Kossuth and his companions fled from Hungary and sought refuge in Turkey, they amounted to about four thousand. The Emperors of Austria and Russia demanded them, and the Sultan refused to give them up, but said he would expel them or retain them under surveillance. Russia then requested that all the Poles should be expelled from Turkey; and two hundred and fifty were sent off to Malta, who thence dispersed through France and Belgium. A large number of the refugees escaped, through the generous connivance of the Turkish authorities.

The Austrian government pressingly demanded that Kossuth and others should be detained for life; but the Sultan promised only for one year. Mr. Brown thought that year would terminate in the month of May, 1851.

Kossuth, with about thirty-five exiles, named in a list, and forty more had been removed, at their own request, to Kutayah, where they then were. Three hundred, who were at Shumla, all that remained of the original four thousand, the Sultan had brought to Constantinople, for the purpose of sending to England.

Mr. Brown recommended that the steamer Mississippi be ordered to proceed to Constantinople for the purpose of giving the Sultan an opportunity to carry out his generous intention, to release and send off the unfortunate exiles then at Kutayah.

The Turkish envoy, Amin Bey, who had completed his tour through the States and examination of our institutions, took his leave of the President, preparatory to returning to his own country, in March. On that occasion he expressed his trust that his mission would have the effect of strengthening the friendship

which always existed between the Sublime Porte and the government of the United States. He stated that in the course of his six months' sojourn in our country, he had unexpectedly been received as the nation's guest, and had observed with much gratification the institutions and resources of this great nation. He also expressed his gratitude for the many acts of kindness he had received, and the attentions shown him, and the high sense of his government for these favors.

The President, in reply, expressed his happiness that the envoy had been so gratified by his visit, and remarked that his mission was one of the incidents of the age worthy of note. He added, that the country made him the bearer of its respects to the Sultan, and commended him to the protection of Almighty God.*

MEXICO.

The rebellion of Melendez in Oajaca had hardly been suppressed, when an insurrection broke out at Guanajuato, headed by two brothers named Liecagas, the same who were engaged in the outbreak in favor of Paredes at that place, a few years ago. They are very rich, and consequently escaped punishment for their concern in that abortive rebellion. The insurgents proclaimed Santa Anna dictator, and got possession of the government of the city, which they held several days. They also captured the Governor of the State, and kept him in close custody. But a few days afterwards, the government forces under Uruga and Bustamente re-took the city, and thoroughly suppressed the insurrection.

Mariano Arista, the newly-elected President, was inaugurated on the 15th of January, when he delivered an address expressing his views regarding his future policy. He approved of the federal, in opposition to the centralizing system, and declared that he would strive to equalize the share of the public burdens borne by the various States, as justice required, and endeavor to maintain peace, which the Republic needed, above all things, and to suppress every appearance of revolt. The address was received with evident approbation.

The northern States of Mexico continued to be infested by bands of Indians. They committed great depredations in Coahuila, Chihuahua, and Durango. A large party of them took possession of the town of Parras without opposition, and committed great atrocities. They were emboldened to such measures

* Amin Bey carried with him to Constantinople many valuable works presented by the government and by private liberality, relating to the agriculture, mechanical industry and skill, and the commerce of the United States.

by the weakness of the general and State governments, which did not exhibit a proper degree of energy in quelling these depredations. Similar outrages were committed in the State of Sonora, where the Indians murdered several of the inhabitants.

The war against the Indians of Yucatan still continued, with much suffering to the people, but without any decisive result, although upwards of twelve thousand troops were employed against the rebels. The distracted state of the country had produced a great scarcity and dearth of provisions, and the general government furnished neither corn nor military stores to prosecute the war. Complaints were made by the Yucatanese that the British supplied the Indians with munitions of war at Belize, in exchange for the plunder of churches, or any other that might be offered. It is said that at this time there were twenty thousand Indian troops in Yucatan, in arms against the government, well supplied with ammunition and necessaries, while the government forces had neither ammunition, food, nor clothing. The Indians consequently ruled the country, and treated the white inhabitants who fell into their power with severity.

The government of the new President was, upon the whole, rather popular, although some of the appointments made by him were highly offensive to certain parties; and there were various complaints of his extravagance and inertness. Much difficulty was experienced in raising money to carry on the government, as the instalment paid by the United States, under the late treaty, was exhausted, and there were no apparent means of supplying the deficiency. An occurrence which took place at this time is worthy of notice. Señor Ocampo was sent as collector of customs to Guaymas, on the Pacific; and he no sooner arrived there than he was besieged by smugglers, with offers of heavy bribes, for conniving at violations of the revenue laws. Ocampo resisted these temptations; and the consequence was, that he was seized, along with his secretary, by a band of armed men, at night, put on board a small sloop, and after undergoing various dangers, landed at Mazatlan, about a week afterwards. There is no account that the perpetrators of this outrage were punished.

About the same time, a decree was passed granting a donation to all soldiers who had been disabled by wounds received in the late war against the United States. But where the money was to be procured for the purpose, we have not learned. No practicable means had yet been devised for supplying the deficiency in the revenue. Robberies were common, and several heavy failures took place among the merchants. The diligence which left Mexico for Morelia, on the 13th of May, was robbed; and it indicates that such occurrences were very common, when the papers boasted

that this was the first case in which a diligence of that line had been robbed for four months. There were also many complaints of extortion, fraud, and bribery in the administration of justice; but no efficient steps were taken to remedy these evils.

The Tehuantepec grant to Garay was annulled by the Congress, which entertained a motion to impeach Señor Lacunza for having negotiated such a treaty; and the American engineers were consequently notified to stop working on the projected railroad. Arista was much disappointed and mortified at this result, as he was anxious that the treaty should be ratified.

About this time Señor S. Navarro returned from Carthagena, and reported that Santa Anna was living there, busily engaged in cock-fighting, and other amusements of that kind. But he was suspected of having had some intercourse with that notable personage of a political kind, and was therefore arrested and incarcerated.

The increasing depredations of the Indians in Yucatan, led to some degree of vigor in opposing them; and they were afterwards defeated at Bacalar, which town they attempted to take by assault. A destructive fire was opened on them from the garrison; and they were routed with great loss,—their dead bodies actually damming up the river.

The Congress adjourned on the 23d of May, without having done anything towards raising a revenue. The Senate passed a bill giving the President dictatorial power for that purpose; but it was lost in the Chamber of Deputies. An extra session assembled on the 1st of June, called by the President on account of the embarrassed state of the treasury. The session was opened by an address from the President, in which he reminded them of the efforts and proposals of the government to meet the difficulty, and of its economy in disbursing the public money. He expressed a strong hope that the object for which they were re-assembled would be accomplished.

The Minister of Finance submitted to the Congress a project for raising a sufficient revenue by increased duties and taxes; but it was rejected. At the same time the Chambers showed itself hostile to grant dictatorial powers to the President, by passing a resolution requiring all its proceedings regarding any such proposition to be published. Another similar proposal was afterwards made by the minister, but with no better success.

About the end of June, the Government published a decree, stating that, in consequence of various propositions having been made for the privilege to construct a railroad from Vera Cruz to Acapulco, it would sell this privilege to the highest bidder. The whole road was to be finished within fifteen years, and to be commenced within two; the contractors were to have the exclusive

privilege of the road for fifty years. All foreigners who engaged in the work were to renounce their nationality in all matters connected with the road.

On the whole, the political aspect of Mexico at this period was gloomy. The administration of Arista had not realized public expectation. The Treasury was exhausted: no mutual confidence existed between government and people, and there seemed neither vitality nor harmony enough in the organization of society to maintain an independent republic for any length of time.

CHAPTER VI.

Continuance of difficulties in Nicaragua—War between Guatemala and the States of San Salvador and Honduras—Advance of Carrera—Impeachment of Vasconcelos, and overtures for peace—West Indies—Cuba—arrests at Puerto Principe—discovery of a secreted printing-press—incendiary papers—Jamaica—cholera there—discussions respecting laborers—Hayti—conspiracy—interference of foreign powers on behalf of Dominica—Peru—new President—insurrection—Guano trade—Brazil—the slave trade—Argentine Republic, Rosas dictator—his character—Disaffection in the interior States—Uruguay—opposition to Rosas—difficulties with Brazil—a league against the dictator—his position and cruelties—Chili—prosperous condition—revolt suppressed—Sandwich Islands—first public reception of the U. S. Commissioner—misunderstanding with the French—treaty made.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE difficulties between the British and the State of Nicaragua still continued. Mr. Chatfield informed Nicaragua that his Government had determined to continue the protectorate of the Mosquito kingdom, and that no canal could be built, or route of transit established, unless the State submitted. The British authorities still kept possession of San Juan, and gave no evidence of a disposition to comply with the recent treaty with the United States. The port of Tigre, and several others, were blockaded by vessels acting under Mr. Chatfield's directions.

Very early in the year, the troubles between Guatemala on the one side, and the States of Honduras and San Salvador on the other, broke out into open hostilities. The troops of the latter States invaded the territories of Guatemala, with a force of about 4,000 men; but they were met by the Guatemalan troops under Carrera, at La Arada, not far from Chiquimala, and defeated with great loss. Their killed exceeded 500, but the Guatemalan loss was comparatively trifling. The allied troops were commanded

by Vasconcelos, President of San Salvador, who retired to San Jacinto, closely pursued by the enemy.

The Guatemalan government, contrary to the wishes of a majority of the people, who rather desired a federal league of all the Central States, had made a treaty with England, and expected to receive a share of the spoils of the State of Honduras, of which Chatfield claimed about one-half as belonging to his pretended kingdom of Mosquito. How far the British government was implicated in these proceedings is not yet settled : but it is generally believed that Chatfield acted under instructions from the ministry.

After the defeat of Vasconcelos, Carrera invaded San Salvador, in his turn, and occupied the town of Santa Anna. There he offered to make peace on condition that Vasconcelos should resign his office, that his State should be indemnified for its losses, and that the Guatemalan refugees should be given up. To these offers Señor Duenas, the provisional President, replied that Vasconcelos' resignation must be voluntary, and that the refugees could not be surrendered. Carrera, however, withdrew his forces at the request of the Guatemalan government, which was unwilling to leave San Salvador any objection for refusing peace.

Vasconcelos was now impeached for having made war on Guatemala without the sanction of Congress ; and the two houses voted an accusation against him, for a violation of the constitution. The Vice-President, Felix Quiros, took his place at the head of the executive, about the beginning of March. Vasconcelos demanded, in an address to the Senate, to be immediately tried, that he might justify his conduct before the country ; but this request was not complied with.

In Honduras, the people equally disapproved of the conduct of their President, Juan Lindo, for having entered into the coalition with San Salvador against Guatemala. Had the expedition been successful, the opinions of both States would probably have been different ; and there would have been no accusations against the Presidents.

When Quiros assumed the government of San Salvador, he made overtures of peace to Guatemala and to Chatfield, for a settlement of the pending difficulties. These were favorably received, and the British blockade was withdrawn.

WEST INDIES.

CUBA.—The expectation of an outbreak among the malcontents on the island, coupled with the fear of their receiving aid from abroad, and especially from sympathizers in the United States, kept the Government anxious and on the alert, during the

winter and spring; and the fortifications were put in the best practicable state of defence. No appearance of any conspiracy or outbreak, however, occurred till the beginning of May. On the 3d of that month, nine of the principal citizens of Puerto Principe were arrested, on a charge of being concerned in a conspiracy to overturn the existing government. Several others, supposed to be implicated, escaped to the mountains, and took with them a printing-press, which they employed in printing addresses in favor of Cuban independence. They found no difficulty in procuring supplies from their friends, and spreading their papers or pamphlets among the Creoles. It was said that those who were seized, had been engaged in secretly publishing a newspaper, advocating independence and annexation to the United States, and censuring the acts of the Governor. The parties concerned in this undertaking for a long time baffled all the efforts of the Government to discover their proceedings, although many copies of the paper were circulated through the town and vicinity. At length it was discovered that this paper was issued from a cave near Principe, whereupon, search being made, a regular printing establishment was found, and some persons diligently at work. The latter were arrested and banished from the island without trial.

Several further arrests were made, and the Government vigilance was not in the least relaxed, it being believed that the danger of an invasion was still imminent, and that the apparent disbanding of the malcontents was a mere artifice to induce negligence and false security.

About the end of June, some guerilla parties of insurgents appeared in the neighborhood of Coscorro, a village between Principe and Nuevitas. But some government troops from the garrison of Principe were sent against them; and they dispersed for the time, without effecting anything of consequence.

JAMAICA.—The cholera still continued to prevail on this island, but yet with diminished virulence, till the beginning of spring, when it may be said to have disappeared, although a few cases occurred early in the summer.

The difficulty of procuring a sufficient number of suitable laborers, led to prolonged discussions regarding the propriety of introducing free persons of color from the United States and Canada, to supply the deficiency. But there were serious objections made against the government holding out inducements to immigrants, in the shape of special rewards or privileges. It was alleged that this would bring into the country indolent persons, of whom they had too many already, rather than industrious and active laborers, such as they wanted. It was argued that persons

of this character could mostly succeed very well in their present localities, and would not be likely to leave their native places and acquaintances, for the inducements held forth to them in Jamaica; while, on the other hand, the indolent and improvident would readily do so. In these circumstances, the great majority of the people appear to have concluded that it was best to leave the matter wholly to private negotiation; and consequently no legislative action was had on the subject.

HAYTI.—In the month of January, several extensive robberies took place at Cape Haytien and Port-au-Prince: and the Government was convinced, from various circumstances which came to light, that these depredations were connected with political movements. Among other outrages, the Government Treasury was robbed of a large amount. A man was captured on suspicion of having stolen a soldier's shirt; but on being searched, instead of the shirt, a large sum of money was found on his person. His offering a considerable bribe for his liberation led to the belief that he was connected with the recent robberies, and he was committed. He now declared that he had given part of the plunder to an officer of the guard, named Cabet, who was on duty at the time, and he also was arrested; and on searching his residence for the stolen property, a manifesto was discovered which brought to light the whole conspiracy.

It was now ascertained that the ramifications of the plot extended all over the island, and that many of the leading blacks were implicated. Numerous arrests were made, both at Port-au-Prince and Cape Haytien, including several members of the ministry and other officials. A commission of inquiry was appointed; and after this body had finished its labors, the accused were tried before the proper tribunals on the 10th of March. They were allowed the greatest latitude in making their defence; but the proof of the leaders' guilt was overwhelming; and after two days' trial, they were found guilty of "attempting to overthrow the government legally and constitutionally established, and to substitute another in its place." J. B. de Francisque, Minister of Justice, Sannon, an officer of the Customs, Baron Cazeau, a representative, and two or three more, were sentenced to death; and shot about ten days afterwards. Three who were convicted of concealing their knowledge of the conspiracy, were sentenced to imprisonment for three years; and one or two were acquitted. An appeal was allowed those condemned to death; but their sentence was confirmed by the higher tribunal.

The object of the conspirators was the establishment of a social republic, at the head of which they would place themselves.

They were all educated men, and entitled to a high social position. But having led dissolute lives, and thereby lost their property, they plotted a revolution, with a view to repair their ruined fortunes.

Soulouque now published a proclamation, declaring what had occurred, and calling on all to unite in maintaining law and order.

Notwithstanding the severe punishment inflicted on the offenders Prince Bobo, an old chief, who had been engaged in the war of Independence, and had been treated with marked consideration ever since, took up arms in favor of the intended republic; but he was easily suppressed, and obliged to flee to the mountains, where he wandered from place to place, with a high price set on his head.

Early in May, the plenipotentiaries of Britain, France, and the United States, presented a joint note to Soulouque, demanding an acknowledgment of the Dominican Republic, or a cessation of hostilities for ten years. But the Emperor refused to comply with either of these requests. He thought that the former powers would not insist on compliance, as the United States alone were to receive the benefit; to whom it was reported that the Dominicans had promised the Bay of Samona and the surrounding lands, for a colony, in case their representative obtained from the Haytiens a recognition of their independence. After some further negotiations, however, Soulouque agreed to act entirely on the defensive with respect to the Dominicans, and not to cross the frontier, unless compelled to do so by some aggressive act on their part.

PERU.—The Presidential election in this republic terminated in favor of J. R. Echenique, who had a large majority of all the votes; yet the friends of General Vivanco made some demonstrations in his favor in Arequipa and some other places. In that city they had a conflict with the troops, in which about eighty persons were killed. But they did not cause any serious disturbance of the public tranquillity, and produced no effect.

In February, an insurrection of slaves broke out at Trujillo, the object of which was to obtain emancipation. This had been promised to them in a decree of General San Martin, on the apprenticeship system; and the time fixed for their entire emancipation having elapsed, without producing any change in their condition, they rose in insurrection. But as the outbreak was so partial, it was put down without any difficulty.

An extra session of Congress assembled on the 2d of May, when the new President sent in a message, unfolding the line of conduct which he meant to follow in his administration. Among other measures he recommended an adequate protection of the

agricultural and mining interests of the country, and the establishment of schools for instruction in those branches of industry; a modification and reduction of the tariff on imports; the liquidation and consolidation of the home debt; the suppression of the base foreign coin now in circulation, and the abolition of the license taxes paid by the artisans. He also expressed an intention to encourage immigration from Europe, by every means in his power.

The rapid increase of the trade in guano, from the Isle of Chinca, and other places, insured to Peru a large and certain revenue; and it enabled the government to defray all the public expenditures, without heavily taxing the people. The extent of this trade may be estimated from the fact that there were upwards of eighty vessels anchored at the same time off Chinca, waiting to receive cargoes. The supply of this manure is said to be inexhaustible.

BRAZIL AND THE ARGENTINE REPUBLICS.—The British, having found, by an experience of many years, that it was hardly possible to suppress the slave trade by blockading the whole African coast, adopted the plan of attempting to close the markets, as more likely to prove effectual. Brazil being one of the principal marts, their efforts were particularly directed to that quarter. The extensive import of sugar into the British Isles enabled them readily to influence the conduct of the Brazilian government. The duty on sugar from slave countries was greatly reduced, and for this concession, the Brazilians entered into an agreement to suppress the slave trade within their dominions. The act of the legislature mentioned in our last volume, was the effect of this agreement; and the Government applied itself vigorously to enforce it. In April, nine of the principal slave dealers were heavily fined, twenty-one imprisoned, and two of the most prominent and wealthy expelled from the country. The influence of the British in Brazil promised, in connection with the desire of the more intelligent classes among the Brazilians, to render this inhuman traffic profitless, and consequently lead to its ultimate suppression in that extensive empire.

The most important event in South America, during the year 1851, was the war between Rosas, the dictator of Buenos Ayres, and the allied forces of Brazil and the Banda Oriental or Uruguay. As the origin of this war is probably not well known to many of our readers, we shall endeavor to give a clear and succinct account of it.

From 1819 to 1829, the fourteen states of La Plata, or the Argentine Confederation, were under a general government like that of the United States; and various steps were taken to pro-

mote education, religious toleration and commerce. They established a University at Buenos Ayres, decreed the liberty of the press, and provided for primary schools in every district of the country. They also organized a national bank, and encouraged immigration from abroad. But the Confederation and such measures as we have just mentioned, were favored chiefly by the inhabitants of the cities and towns. The *gauchos*, or those who live in the country, and whose business is raising herds, or slaughtering wild cattle, totally disapproved of such measures, and were hostile to any confederation of the States. In 1829, the opposition was strong enough to overthrow the federal constitution, and after various commotions and disorders, John Manuel Rosas, a gaucho, was, in 1835, appointed Dictator of Buenos Ayres; and after that time for several years he exercised absolute control over the various States of the old confederation, except Uruguay, although he had no shadow of right to do so, in the case of a majority of those States.

Rosas was a man of much energy and cunning, but quite unscrupulous about means, and equally destitute of all humane feeling and moral principle. He preserved public tranquillity, put an end to highway robbery for 150 miles round Buenos Ayres, and gave a great stimulus to agriculture, so that the country produced much more corn than formerly.

But these benefits were much more than counterbalanced by his misdeeds. Every one opposed to him was butchered, or robbed, or banished at his will; and the streets of his capital frequently flowed with human blood; and it is said heads and corpses were piled up in cartloads. In many instances, men were seized and put to death by his agents, for no other crime than that they were rich. He had organized a gang called the *Ma-shorca club*, which was always in readiness to execute his mandates, however bloody.

One main source of plunder to Rosas was the foreign trade of Buenos Ayres, the export and import duties of which went into his coffers. All the States above that city, having no other communication with the sea but by the *La Plata*, were forced to send down thither their hides, wool and tallow, and pay a heavy export duty, while they were obliged to buy all their imported goods there, at a price similarly enhanced by a heavy impost. This proceeding gradually fomented discontent in other States, and prepared the way for the tyrants's fall.

Rosas had also excited the hostility of the Uruguayans by his efforts to ruin the trade of their capital, Monte Video, and turn it into Buenos Ayres. The former city is naturally superior to the latter as a shipping place, since it has a more spacious bay, and

can be approached without passing out of deep water, whereas the latter city is surrounded by shallow water, and large vessels are obliged to unload about eight miles below its port. Oribe, a creature of Rosas, and a character worthy of such a master, had been claiming for the last eight years that he was the rightful President of Uruguay, although he had fairly resigned that office, and under that pretence had kept Monte Video, which refused to receive him as ruler, in a state of siege, money and troops being furnished by Rosas. This proceeding nearly ruined the trade of Uruguay, most of its merchants being obliged to betake themselves to Buenos Ayres.

Besides Uruguay, the State of Paraguay, which had never belonged to the Argentine Confederation, was hostile to Rosas, and disposed to unite in an alliance against him: for he had repeatedly pretended that it belonged to the Republic, and talked of subjugating that State, while some of his subjects or agents had committed various spoliations on the Paraguayans.

In addition to this, Brazil was equally hostile to Rosas; by reason of various wanton outrages committed by his orders on Brazilian subjects, for which he refused to make any reparation. He had also started a project of a revolution in Brazil, which was to be effected by an insurrection of the colored population. There seems to be little doubt that he meditated obtaining absolute sway over all South America. For he had similar designs on Chili, Bolivia and Peru, with all of which countries he was at variance.

While the elements were thus at work abroad to gather a storm against Rosas, strong opposition to his rule appeared within the Confederation. Urquiza, the Governor of Entre Rios, who had formerly obeyed all his commands, suddenly sided with his opponents; and Virasoro, the Governor of Corrientes, became equally hostile.

All the States and territories now mentioned, formed an offensive and defensive league against the aspiring and bloody gaucho, and to liberate Uruguay. Brazil raised an army of about 20,000, to assist in carrying on the war, including a cavalry force from the recently disbanded army of Holstein, hired for the occasion. Paraguay also raised a strong force. At the same time Gen. Urquiza ordered every citizen of Entre Rios, above the age of fifteen, to be enrolled and drilled. He also invited the co-operation of the neighboring States, to put down the oppression and ruinous government of Rosas, and restore liberty, peace, and prosperity.

Notwithstanding these formidable preparations against him, Rosas preserved an apparent confidence and courage befitting his former character. Towards Brazil he assumed an attitude of de-

fiance, and by his organs dared her to commence the struggle, warning her of the fate of the whites in Hayti, and asserting that it needed but a word from him to insure a general revolt of the slave population, a massacre of their masters, and the fall of the empire. But yet, there were several indications that Rosas was in reality alarmed, as he had good reason to be. The opposition of Urquiza particularly troubled him, as he had evidently been taken by surprise; for he had calculated on that man as his right arm in a struggle with Brazil. The English bond-holders exhibited symptoms of uneasiness and dissatisfaction; Buenos Ayres was in a state of general bankruptcy; his hopes that the Le Predour treaty with France would be accepted, began rapidly to vanish; and he entertained strong suspicions that the apathy which he saw around him, proceeded from general dissatisfaction. His perplexity and anxiety were indicated by the vacillating course which he adopted to meet the approaching danger, and which formed a contrast to his usual promptness and decision. In one respect only he was true to himself; he abated nothing of his former reckless cruelty. About forty persons were put to death on suspicion, eighteen of them at the door of his country residence, at Palermo de San Benito. In the city, every man dreaded that his neighbor was a spy or an assassin; and gloom pervaded the place.

Rosas had been in the habit, for many years, of going through the farce of resigning his dictatorial power, in order to give a show of legality to his position; but terrible would be the consequence to the man who would dare to propose any other person as his successor, or a return to the Confederation, whose friends were generally termed "Unitarian savages." The sycophancy with which Rosas was treated by the people over whom he ruled was one of the evidences of their degradation; and the extent to which it was carried was exhibited in an address transmitted to him from Calamarca, at the beginning of the war, after he had perpetrated the butcheries just mentioned. The following extract will be sufficient:

"Only Gen. Rosas, and no one but Gen. Rosas, could wipe off the horrid crimes, the ruin, the opprobrium, and the confusion—hated offspring of the ferocious, alarming anarchy—that covered our beloved country with mourning, and involved it in bitter lamentation; his immense power and his invincible hand restored serenity to our horizon. He is the sun that gives light and existence to the Republic, the star that influences its present and its future destinies, the genius that guides her steps to the enchanting height of her aggrandisement and prosperity—he is our tutelar angel."

In the same paper in which this address was printed, were circumstantial accounts of the depressed condition of trade and

commerce, and the miserable condition of the country generally. The operations of the war, and the fall of Rosas, belong to the ensuing volume.

CHILI.

Whatever may have been the causes, Chili appears to have taken the lead of all the South American States in general prosperity and progress. The session of the Congress, which adjourned in January, 1851, made several provisions for new railroads and other internal improvements; and the affairs of the country at that time were prosperous. The crops of the preceding season had been abundant; and the mines were unusually productive. The receipts from the silver mines of Copiapo alone were estimated at \$300,000 per month; the receipts of the customs exceeded those of previous years, and part of the State debt was paid off. At the same time trade and commerce were flourishing.

In this state of affairs the public tranquillity was interrupted by a revolt, a thing by no means common in this State. It broke out at Sant Jago, the capital, on the 20th of April. A battalion of troops marched out of their barracks about three o'clock in the morning, hoping to be supported by the populace of the city; and they endeavored to take the barracks of the artillery by assault, in order to procure arms. This was gallantly defended; but, by setting it on fire, it was taken.

In the meantime the President attacked them, at the head of a strong force of national guards, regular troops, and volunteers; and after about two hours fighting, the insurrection was put down. Many were killed, and among others Col. Urriola, leader of the insurgents. Several proclamations were issued, calling upon all good citizens to support the laws. These were responded to by most of the inhabitants; and tranquillity was soon restored. Martial law was proclaimed in the provinces of Sant Jago and Valparaiso. This was the first serious outbreak in Chili for more than twenty years. It does not appear that the insurgents had any definite political aims.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The first public election ever held in these islands, took place on the 6th of January, when representatives were chosen from the various districts to the legislature. Among the representatives elected were several adopted citizens from the United States.

Hon. Luther Severance, U. S. Commissioner, arrived at Honolulu, and was received by the king, on the 17th of January. In an address to his majesty, he assured him of the friendly feelings

entertained towards him by the U. S. Government, and their determination to adhere rigidly to the treaty recently made, but expressing their willingness to enter into any new arrangements that might be mutually advantageous and satisfactory. The king, in reply, expressed his gratification at the interest taken by the government and people of the United States, in the civilization and prosperity of his kingdom. His past experience, he said, authorized him to expect nothing but good from the United States, and to count them, under all circumstances, among his best friends. He added that he should depend on the support of that and other friendly governments, in sustaining the independence of his country. He had endeavored, he said, to conform his policy and laws to the wants of the age, and to encourage industry by all the means in his power.

A misunderstanding arose between the Hawaiian government and the French, regarding the construction of some articles of the treaty of 1846, which at one time threatened serious consequences. The French demanded that the French and American missionaries should be placed on a par in the distribution of the government school funds. It was also demanded that the duty on French liquors should be reduced to 5 per cent., that France, as well as the United States and Britain, should be represented in the ministry, and that the correspondence between the two governments should henceforth be carried on in French, and not in English, as formerly. These demands were for some time persisted in by the French, and as resolutely resisted by the government, which was prepared to throw itself upon the protection of the United States, in case of an attack on the part of the French vessel of war then in the port of Honolulu; and as we are informed, the Americans on the Islands were prepared to defend it, if attacked.

These troubles were quieted for a time, at least, by a temporary treaty concluded between R. C. Wyllie, Minister of Foreign Affairs on the part of the Islands, and M. Perrin, on the part of France. The king agreed to refer to the next session of the legislature the question of the equality of Protestant and Catholic missionaries, and also to inquire whether, as a measure of political economy, French spirits should not be admitted at \$2 50 per gallon, instead of the former duty of \$5. Documents from French subjects were to be received in the French language, and the treaty was adopted in French and Hawaiian. A proclamation to this effect was published in the "*Polynesian*," the government paper. The king referred his claim for damages for the destruction of his fort, the seizure of his yacht, and other spoliations committed by the French, to the decision of Louis Napoleon.

CHAPTER VII.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Anti-papal agitation continues—Views of different parties thereon—Address to Cardinal Wiseman—Effect of the Queen's replies to Addresses—Opening of the new session of Parliament—Ecclesiastical Titles Bill—Lord John Russell's speech—Ministry defeated on the subject of Parliamentary Reform—Views of the Papal aggression in the House of Lords—Unsuccessful effort of the Protectionists in the Commons—Address of the English Catholics to the Queen—Resignation of the Russell ministry—Failure of the Conservatives to form a new ministry, and return of the old to office—Important changes made in the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill—Jews' oath of Abjuration Bill—Address of the English Bishops to their Clergy against novel rites—The Ecclesiastical Titles Bill passes the House of Commons—The World's Fair.

THE agitation which we noticed in our last volume, caused by the recent act of the Pope in claiming spiritual jurisdiction over the British Isles, and the consequent assumption of a British ecclesiastical title by Cardinal Wiseman, continued with unabated force. The Catholics mostly approved of these acts, and thought they were only a prelude to the return of the British empire to the bosom of the Catholic church, after a separation and active opposition for upwards of three centuries. Some of the more intelligent Catholics, however, viewed those acts very differently. They thought it was impolitic to venture upon a course which might provoke the active hostility of the government, and rouse the strong anti-catholic feeling of many of the Protestants, which, they thought, only slumbered, but was not extinct. This section of the Catholics thought the best course for their church was to rely on what they consider her spiritual power, until they felt themselves stronger than they then were.

Protestants viewed those measures differently. The members of the established churches strongly disapproved of them, with very few exceptions, and manifested a spirit of hostility to anything which looked like aggression on the part of the Catholics.

A decided majority of Protestant dissenters united with those of the established churches in opposing and denouncing the alleged aggression, notwithstanding their differences among themselves; some of them, however, stood aloof, on the ground that all established churches are unscriptural, unjust in principle, and injurious in their influence on vital religion, and that the Pope had as much real right to appoint bishops and archbishops as Queen Victoria. They thought that the interests of true Christianity are best promoted by allowing every denomination to do as they please with their own affairs, without interfering or exer-

cising jurisdiction over others, according to the principles and practice in the United States of America.

Numerous public meetings were held in relation to this subject throughout Britain. The press teemed with publications on the subject, both new works and republications of the old: while the warfare was waged vigorously through the periodical press; and the Protestant societies redoubled their efforts in making converts from among the Catholics. The debates in parliament, also, regarding this subject, occupied much of the time and attention of that body.

After a long delay, the Roman Catholics of England presented a congratulatory address to Cardinal Wiseman, expressing their determination to live and die by their religion, and meeting the Protestant movement by a concealed tone of haughty defiance. This document was signed by seven of the fourteen Catholic peers, and Lord Shrewsbury sent his adhesion by letter. Mr. P. Howard was the only member of the House of Commons who signed it. The Duke of Norfolk and Lord Beaumont, Catholic noblemen, opposed the whole movement.

The queen's replies to the various addresses presented to her by public bodies, on the 10th day of December, 1850, as mentioned in our last volume, gave general satisfaction to the Protestants of the empire, as she expressed her determination to uphold "the pure and spiritual worship of the Protestant faith, and to maintain it against any danger with which it may be threatened, from whatever quarter it may proceed." Those, however, who approved of penal measures against the Catholics, were dissatisfied, as it appeared that such were not contemplated, her Majesty congratulating the council of London on their attachment to "the great principles of civil and religious liberty."

While the great body of the English church, both lay and clerical, denounced, in no ambiguous terms, the Pope's bull, and the consequent act of Wiseman, the leading Puseyite ministers presented an address to the Cardinal, in which they expressed great respect for "his person and his office, as a bishop of the church of God."

The fourth session of her third Parliament was opened by the queen in person, on the 4th of February. As the speech is brief, we refer our readers to the documents in this volume for a particular knowledge of its contents. The views of the Catholic aggression are the same as those expressed in her replies to the addresses already mentioned. On the 7th, Lord John Russell moved for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the assumption of certain ecclesiastical titles in respect of places in the United Kingdom. He stated that the government had consulted the legal ad-

visers of the crown, regarding the existing law, and that they thought such assumptions of titles could not be prosecuted as an offence, either under the common or statute law, and that although the introduction of Bulls, or papal decrees, from Rome, was illegal, and subjected the party to a penalty, the law had been so long in disuse that a prosecution under it would probably fail. He continued that, as the new Catholic prelates would obtain the control of large endowments, in the hands of Catholic trustees throughout the United Kingdom, the government proposed to prevent the assumption of any title, not only from any diocese now existing, but from any territory or place within the United Kingdom; and to restrain parties from obtaining any control over trust property by virtue of such titles. He said the change in the papal hierarchy had been made, not only without the consent, but without the knowledge of the government, and that the course pursued by the Pope was an insult to the queen; a declaration which was received with long-continued cheers from all parts of the house. He proposed that all property left or given to the new bishops, should be forfeited to the crown, who should have power to appoint trustees to administer such property. After a four nights' debate, the motion was carried by a majority of 395 to 63; Mr. Roebuck, and some other radical members, opposing it as a revival of puritanic bigotry.

On the 20th of February, a motion by Mr. Locke King, for a bill to assimilate the elective franchise in English counties to that in boroughs, and thus enlarge the county constituencies, was carried by a majority of 48 against the ministry. On the debate, Lord John Russell admitted that the measure was reasonable, and that the class who would thus obtain the franchise were highly deserving of that privilege. But he thought the measure inopportune during the present session. He added that he thought he should be able, next year, to lay before the parliament a bill for widening the basis of the representation.

Complaint was made in the House of the absence of any allusion in the queen's speech to Kossuth and the Hungarians. Lord Palmerston replied, that efforts had been made to procure their release, but hitherto without success.

Very numerous petitions were presented on the subject of the Papal aggression. In the House of Lords, many of the members censured the measure in strong terms. Lord Camoys, a Roman Catholic peer, expressed his decided disapprobation of the Pope's act. He said, that he was a Roman Catholic, and his forefathers had been for centuries, but at the same time he was an Englishman, and the rights and liberties of England were as dear to him as to any of their lordships. He admit-

ted the spiritual supremacy of the queen over the Established Church to the fullest extent that the most orthodox member of that church could desire, and he acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope over the Roman Catholic population of this country in spiritual matters; but as to any other assumption of power over this country on the part of the Pope, or any undue exercise of his spiritual power over its population, against any such assumption he felt it to be his duty to protest. The policy of the late hierarchical introductions was most erroneous. It was founded on the most entire ignorance of the religious condition of the people of this country. He maintained, however, that the law was not violated until the titles of dignitaries of the Church of England were assumed.

In the House of Commons, the protectionists attempted to obtain a return to the old policy, by offering a motion for the relief of alleged distress among the agricultural classes. This motion was offered by Mr. D'Israeli. Sir James Graham defended the new policy, and pointed to the general prosperity throughout the country, as a strong argument in its favor. The number of paupers in the United Kingdom had greatly decreased, and the exportation of 1850 largely exceeded that of previous years. And he particularly pointed to the immense imports of foreign wheat and flour, consumed by persons who would otherwise have suffered the evils of want.

Mr. Cayley supported the motion, and denied the accuracy of the preceding statements. Mr. Cardwell replied, and stated that there had been no instance, under the protective system, where the revenue was larger than before, after taking off seven and a half millions of pounds of taxes. He said the large sums borrowed for investment in agriculture proved that the distress was not so severe as was alleged. Mr. Cobden denied the right of the agriculturists to compensation for their loss of protection, and contended that their burdens could be relieved, like those of other classes, by retrenchment in the government expenditure. Lord J. Russell said that, however disguised, the question at issue was that of protection. He contended there was no cause shown for adopting the motion. There was a surplus in the exchequer; employment even in agricultural districts had increased, and crime diminished. On a division, there was for the motion 276; against it 281.

On the 11th of February, an address was presented to the queen, signed by Lords Dormer and Lovat, and about 400,000 English Catholics, in which they expressed their loyalty and fidelity to her person and crown; and asserted that the recent

proceedings of the Catholic hierarchy were of a purely ecclesiastical and spiritual nature.

On the 22d of February, Lord John Russell's ministry resigned, in consequence of the majority against them, on the 20th, in the House of Commons, on Mr. L. King's motion mentioned above, their small majority on D'Israeli's motion, and the opposition generally manifested to their budget. There was a surplus of £2,500,000 in the treasury, which the Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed to employ partly in paying off the national debt. He proposed to abolish the window tax, and impose a house duty, exempting all houses of less value than £20. The duty on coffee he proposed to reduce from 6*d.* to 3*d.* per pound. The losses arising from these sources he supposed would be covered by the balance of the present excess.

On the resignation of the ministry, the queen sent for Lord Stanley, (now Earl of Derby,) one of the protectionist leaders, with a view to the formation of a new ministry. Derby, in conjunction with D'Israeli, attempted to form a government. But they abandoned the undertaking as hopeless, within a short time, partly on account of the intrinsic difficulties of the task, and partly because the queen would not grant the right of unreservedly dissolving parliament.

It was now attempted to form a coalition ministry of Whigs and moderate Tories; but as Lord Aberdeen and Sir James Graham, the leading men of the latter party, were decidedly opposed to the anti-papal bill, this attempt failed.

The queen then sent for the Duke of Wellington, to counsel with him in this embarrassing and difficult case. He advised her to invite the former ministry to resume their offices. Lord John Russell was accordingly sent for; and they resumed their former stations.

On the 11th of March, Lord Duncan moved a resolution in the House of Commons, for reform in the management of the public woods and forests, when the ministry were defeated by a majority of one.

On the 25th of March, the Ecclesiastical Titles' Assumption bill was read a second time, by a majority of 438 to 95, after a debate of seven evenings. But the second and third clauses of the original bill had been struck out, so that some of the most zealous Protestants considered it as practically annihilated. The part retained only prohibited the assumption of titles; that which concerned the control of property being struck out.

Mr. Locke King moved the second reading of the County Franchise bill on the 2d of April; but it was negatived by a majority of 299 against 83. Next day Lord John Russell moved that the

House go into committee, to consider the mode of administering the oath of abjuration to persons professing the Jewish religion, which was carried by a majority of 68.

Lord John Russell moved the second reading of the Jew's Oath of Abjuration Bill on the 1st of May; and it was carried by 202 to 177. The effect of this bill would be, to enable Jews to take seats in the House of Commons, from which they are now excluded by the law requiring them to swear "upon the true faith of a Christian."

Various clergymen of the Church of England having, within the last few years, introduced many ritual observances which had not been previously used since the Reformation, the Archbishop of Canterbury and twenty of the bishops issued an address to the clergy of their respective dioceses, upon the troubles, suspicions, and discontents which arose from the attempted revival of those observances. They warned them against such attempts as dangerous innovations; and while they admitted the right to employ some of them, they advised the clergy to reject them, because they tended to disturb the peace of the Church. The bishops who did not join in the address were those of Bath and Wells, Exeter, Hereford and Manchester.

In Parliament, on the 9th of May, Lord Palmerston replied to a question by Mr. T. Duncombe, that the occupation of Rome by the French troops had been undertaken by the French government on its own discretion and judgment, and that the British government was no party to the measure.

The Ecclesiastical Titles Bill passed in the House of Commons, on the 4th of July, by a majority of 263 to 40, after much excitement, most of the Irish members having left the House. A motion to strike out the part of the bill imposing a penalty of £100 on procuring or publishing Bulls or Rescripts from Rome, was lost by a majority of 208 against 129.

The great event in the history of England at this period was the *World's Fair*, which drew to her mighty capital from all quarters of the world the richest and most magnificent display of the works of art that had ever before been collected at one spot. The deep interest which it excited everywhere, will be our apology for a brief description of it in this place.

Before the opening of this great exhibition, various opinions were entertained regarding the result. The birds hatched under royal wings had so often turned out to be abortions, that some degree of scepticism regarding the success of the undertaking was not unnatural. There is also a large class of persons who decry everything where they are not to be leading managers; and these looked knowing, and alluded to the ancient fable of the moun-

tains in labor. But all such persons were destined to be completely disappointed, whether agreeably or otherwise is a matter of no consequence.

The Crystal Palace, erected in Hyde Park, to receive the contributions, was not made over to the Royal Commissioners until more than a month after the time previously appointed; and even when the transfer was made, the building was not in such a state of forwardness as had been expected, so that it was feared the fair could not be opened on the first of May. But great exertion overcame this difficulty.

The Palace itself being, perhaps, the greatest curiosity connected with the exhibition, demands a brief description. It was composed of iron and glass, and presented so light an appearance, owing to the slender proportions of the metal, as to remind one of the palaces mentioned in the Arabian Nights. The iron columns were hollow; and the different parts were supported by girders where required. It was feared that the roof could not be made water-proof; but we believe no difficulty was experienced from this source after the opening. A single gallery ran round the whole edifice, so constructed as to afford favorable points for viewing the exhibition.

The Palace covered about eighteen acres of ground, and was so high as to include the trees which grew in the Park, without any inconvenience. It was 1,851 feet long, and 456 feet in extreme width, capable of containing 40,000 visitors, and exhibited a front for the exhibition of goods about ten miles long. The amount subscribed for its erection was £67,000.

There were four entrances, one at each end, and one in the middle on each side, with about twelve exits along the sides, apart from the entrances. The first column had been fixed on the 26th of September, 1850. The original suggestion of the principle of the structure was made by Mr. (now Sir) Joseph Paxton. It was divided into various compartments, allotted to the different parts of the world.

The number of exhibitors at the opening was about 15,000, of whom about one half were British. The west half of the Palace was appropriated to the productions of the British Isles and their Colonies. The eastern half was assigned to foreign productions.

The morning of the 1st of May presented a very bustling and crowded appearance through London generally, but particularly so in the vicinity of the Crystal Palace; and anticipation was heightened by the fineness of the day.

The Queen arrived at noon, and seated herself on a chair raised on a platform under the high transept; and the platform soon became covered with persons from almost every part of the world

—"from China to Peru." On the Queen's left was Prince Albert, accompanied by their two eldest children. Around were all the great officials, diplomatic corps, the Commissioners of the Exhibition, and various persons of distinction. Of the latter the Duke of Wellington, who this day completed his 82d year, was particularly conspicuous, and also Mr. Paxton, architect of the Palace.

After the national anthem had been performed, Prince Albert and the Commissioners presented themselves before the queen, and read to her a brief report of their proceedings up to that time. They stated that the productions of more than forty foreign countries were on exhibition, comprising almost every civilized nation of the globe. The exhibition was divided into four great classes; 1. Raw materials; 2. Machinery; 3. Manufactures; and 4. Sculpture and the Fine Arts. They further stated that the productions of the warmer latitudes had been placed near the centre, and those of the colder countries at the extremities.

The queen briefly replied, expressing her great interest in the exhibition, her gratification at witnessing the successful results of the Commissioners' exertions, in the splendid spectacle around her, and her desire that the undertaking might conduce to the welfare of her people, and the common interests of the human race. The Archbishop of Canterbury then approached the throne, and with great fervency of manner, offered up a prayer invoking God's blessing on the undertaking; after which the choir sung the Hallelujah Chorus.

At this stage of the proceedings, He Sing, a Chinese mandarin, made his way through the crowd of foreign diplomatists, ministers of state, royal princes, &c., and advancing close to her majesty, saluted her by a grand salaam, which the Queen graciously acknowledged.

After the royal party and the distinguished personages around them had examined the most prominent parts of the exhibition, the Marquis of Breadalbane announced, in a loud tone of voice, that the Queen declared "the Exhibition open," after which a flourish of trumpets proclaimed the fact to the assembled multitudes, who numbered about 25,000. The royal family, attended by the court, then withdrew from the building. The Queen and her party were loudly cheered throughout, both by natives and foreigners. The Prince of Wales, heir-apparent to the throne, was dressed in the Highland garb, and received several special cheers from the assemblage. The barriers which had hitherto restrained the spectators within certain limits, were withdrawn, and the masses spread over the building.

The whole west half of the palace, as already said, was occupied by the productions of Great Britain and her colonies. In the

nave, or great central passage, which ran from the west entrance to the east, and near the transept or cross aisle, running from the south entrance to the north or Queen's entrance, was the celebrated *Koh-i-Noor* (i. e. Mountain of Light) diamond, of which a brief account was given in our preceding volume. It was secured in a strong iron cage, richly gilded, and placed upon a pedestal. By a peculiar contrivance, it sunk down at night into a strong iron chest, on which the cage rested, and in which it was secured till the next day.

In the very centre of the palace was a large glass fountain, surrounded by two equestrian statues of the Queen, and several groups of figures. Along the nave were placed a succession of several of the most striking objects in the exhibition, with statuary at intervals. Beginning at the east end, opposite the American contributions, were a fine model of an American bridge, Power's Greek Slave, the Wounded Indian, and a huge block of zinc from New Jersey. On the west side of the transept, the most interesting objects were specimens of Canadian timber, Ross' monster telescope, a lighthouse, and a model of the Liverpool docks.

The American department was less crowded than most others, and the articles exhibited less that was purely ornamental; whence some of the cockney wits took occasion to ridicule this part of the exhibition. But before the close of the fair, these jeers were all hushed. The collection was very interesting, and upon the whole very creditable, although it is the opinion of good judges, that the American display gave no adequate representation either of the native resources or of the industrial productions of this country. The raw materials of this department vied with any others in the exhibition; the mineral department was very full, and the agricultural productions and implements exhibited were not surpassed by any others in the fair. The American daguerreotypes elicited general praise; and the missionary maps were admirable.

Immediately beyond those of the United States were the contributions of Russia, the Scandinavian countries, Germany, and Austria. Those of Russia were comparatively few, consisting mostly of raw produce, and demand no special notice. The same remark applies to Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.

The German department exhibited a full display both of mineral productions and manufactured goods, mostly of the useful kind, in the narrower sense of the term, and also a large amount of good machinery. There was also an extensive display of stained glass, paintings, porcelain, and earthenware goods.

The Austrian department was full, and much resembled the German. It contained several fine specimens of statuary from

Austrian Italy. The contributions of Holland were few and comparatively uninteresting.

Beyond Austria and Holland, appeared the productions of Belgium, which were the fullest in the Fair, considering the narrow territories of that kingdom. They showed a great amount of machinery, raw vegetable productions, and abundance of the lace for which the country has been so long celebrated. There was also a large and creditable assortment of manufactured goods.

Beyond those of Belgium appeared the contributions of France, which were very striking and extensive, as was expected from the long-celebrated skill and taste of that nation. In the amount of its contributions, France was next to Britain; and this department was not deficient in any respect:—useful productions were abundant and conspicuous, as well as the ornamental. There were several fine specimens of mathematical instruments, chemical preparations, preserved meats, and many productions of Algiers, which excited much attention.

West of the French, on the south side of the palace, were the contributions of Switzerland, consisting mostly of light manufactured goods.

On the other side, opposite, were the contributions of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Among the former were several fine specimens of statuary, mosaic, castings, anatomical wax models, and several kinds of manufactured goods. From the peninsula there were various textile fabrics, minerals, marbles, and raw vegetable productions.

Egypt, Greece, and Turkey, whose contributions were immediately west of the last, sent raw productions, rich silks, carpetings, velvets, minerals, and sword-blades.

Adjacent to the preceding, and immediately east of the transept, were the productions of Brazil, Tunis, China, Persia, and Arabia. These included a rich variety of costumery, carpets, vases, ivory works, japanned works, illuminated lamps, and inlaid cabinet work.

The contributions of the British colonies consisted mostly of raw materials and minerals, of which there was a very rich and varied display, brought from every latitude between the tropics and the polar circles, and from Australia to Hudson's Bay. From India there were several specimens of the light pottery, ivory works and other manufactures, for which the Hindoos have long been distinguished; and the Lahore jewels occupied a conspicuous place in this part of the exhibition.

As was to be expected, the native productions of the British Isles were exhibited in great abundance, and of all kinds, from aerial vehicles to machinery of the most ponderous description.

The compartments of machinery, manufactures, and agricultural implements, were particularly full; and there was also a very good display of models; but the minerals and raw productions were not very remarkable. A curious subdivision of this department was Pugin's Medieval Court, which exhibited the English architecture and decorations of the middle ages. Another remarkable part of this subdivision was a large number of Bibles, exhibited by the British and Foreign Bible Society. There were 158 copies, all in different languages, and forming a gratifying proof of the wide diffusion of the Book of Inspiration.

The whole cost of the exhibition exceeded one million of dollars, for nearly one-third of which, it is said, the Queen and Prince Albert were privately pledged. Before the result appeared, therefore, the risk was great. But the first week dispelled all fears about the subscribers sustaining any pecuniary loss, and demonstrated that the undertaking was completely successful. On the 26th of May, the price of admission, which had been five shillings since the opening, (except during the first two days, when it was £1,) was reduced to one shilling, and a great rush of visitors was expected. But they turned out to be fewer than on some previous days. On the 29th, however, the number of visitors who paid for admission was nearly 50,000, besides those who were admitted on season tickets, who numbered upwards of 7,000. On the 24th of June, the number of visitors was nearly 70,000, and the receipts considerably exceeded £3,000.

The visitors all behaved quietly and decorously, the poor as well as the rich; and we cannot learn of a single untoward occurrence of any consequence, from the opening of the fair till its close. There was not the slightest appearance of disorder at any time, and not a single instance of wilful damage to any of the articles exhibited. Some rumors were circulated, early in the season, to the effect that some great revolutionary plot was hatching by the foreigners in England, which was to break out during the exhibition; but it was not generally credited at the time; and it doubtless existed only in the imaginations of a few persons connected with the newspaper press. There was also a suspicion entertained by some that the English were getting up the exhibition with a view to take an unfair advantage of the knowledge which they might thereby acquire of foreign machinery, manufactures, and new productions; but such surmises were as groundless as the supposed plot.*

An account of the further progress and close of the World's Fair, and an estimate of its influence, will appear in our next volume.

CHAPTER VIII.

France—Dissensions between the Executive and Assembly—resignation of the ministry—Changarnier—vote of censure by assembly—new ministry—Archbishop of Paris—dotation bill—protest against demands of Austria—troops in Rome—Prof. Michelet—National Guards—another change in the ministry—Algeria—President's speech at Dijon—revision of the constitution, &c.—Germany—settlement of the Schleswig and Holstein difficulty—Austrian troops in Hamburg—restoration of the old order of things—Hesse-Cassel—designs of Austria and Prussia—riots, &c.—Prussia—the reactionary party in power—liberty of the Press—the King's speech—new trades law, &c.—Austria—general condition—police—conspiracy—troops sent to Italy—Emperor's visit to Venice—privileges restored—severity at Milan.

FRANCE.

THE early part of the year was marked by a long series of dissensions between the Legislative Assembly and the Executive department of the government, occasioned, as any person of ordinary penetration could easily divine, from the defects of the constitution. The legitimist section frequently united with the ultra-democratic members to assert the sovereignty of the Assembly, contrary to its previous practice; and this increased the difficulties of the Ministry. M. Manguin, a representative, having been arrested for debt, the Assembly ordered his release, notwithstanding the declaration of the Minister of Justice, that the constitution did not decree the inviolability of representatives. About the same time, a set of instructions to the army appeared in a newspaper styled "*La Patrie*," which it affirmed to have proceeded from General Changarnier, and to be then in force. One of these required the army to reject every requisition issuing from any civil source. General Schram, Minister of War, being interrogated on the subject in the Assembly, said that he knew nothing of these instructions, and that having lately assumed office, he had had no time to ascertain whether they were among the papers of his department. General Changarnier said they were not to be found, as they were not there, and that no such instructions had been issued from the Commander-in-Chief's head-quarters. He added, that no order whatever had been issued from that quarter denying the right of the Assembly to make a requisition for troops. The Minister of War demanded time to search for the alleged instructions; but this the Assembly refused.

In consequence of these conflicts between the two branches of the government, the Ministry resigned in a body on the 4th of January. The President experienced much difficulty in the forma-

tion of a new Cabinet, M. Barrot having declined to accept office. After an interval of about a week, Drouyn de Lhuys was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, Reynaud de St. Jean d'Angely, of War, A. Fould, of Finances, Baroche, of the Interior, de Parrieu, of Public Instruction, and Rouher, Minister of Justice. A decree, signed by Louis Napoleon, and countersigned by the Ministers of the Interior and of War, revoked the ordinance by which the National Guard and the troops of Paris were united under one command. By this means, General Changarnier was virtually dispossessed of his office. General Perrot was appointed to the superior command of the National Guards of the Seine, and Gen. Baraguay d'Hilliers to be Commandant-in-Chief of the troops of all arms in the Military Division of Paris.

The Assembly showed itself decidedly hostile to the new Ministry. On the 14th of January, a report was presented by a committee appointed to inquire into the nature of the present emergency, in which they declared that the Executive was attempting to restore the Imperial *regime*, and that the General who had refused to sanction seditious cries of *Vive l'Empereur*, had been removed from his office, and that those cries were encouraged and excited by government agents. On the 18th a vote was proposed, censuring the Ministry for their removal of Changarnier from office; and that the Assembly had no confidence in the Ministry. It was carried by a vote of 419 to 278, the majority being composed of legitimists, moderates, and ultra-republicans.

Immediately after this vote the Ministry resigned; and on the 24th, the Assembly received a message from the President, stating that, after their recent vote, he had received the resignation of a Ministry which had given to the country, and to the cause of order, signal pledges of its devotion, and that he had resolved on forming a Ministry belonging to no faction of the Assembly, but determined to devote themselves to the public service, without regard to party feeling. The Ministry now formed consisted of men hitherto undistinguished in public life. None of them were members of the Assembly or Legislative Body, and the announcement of their appointment was generally received with laughter and ridicule by the Assembly.

About this time, the Archbishop of Paris published an exhortation to his clergy, to keep aloof from politics, in conformity with the recent decree of the Council of Paris, and expressly interdicting ecclesiastics from offering themselves as candidates in the elections. This address was generally well received by the public. The Archbishop saw that the reactive course, adopted by many ecclesiastics, was rendering the clergy odious to the people at large; and he foresaw the possibility of another revo-

lution, which might throw all political power into their hands. But some of the Paris journals thought that the step was too late; and that the people were already hopelessly alienated from the clergy.

On the 10th of February, the subject of a dotation of 1,800,000 francs to the President, came up for consideration. The Commissioner of the Bureaus reported against the grant; and after a brief discussion, the dotation bill was rejected by a vote of 396 against 294. A subscription for the President was now proposed, but he promptly declined this scheme. Many of the Parisians regretted the loss of the dotation, since it disabled the President from patronizing their luxurious manufactures as he otherwise would have done. The income of the President was about \$400,000 a-year, exclusive of any dotation; and the majority of the Assembly thought this was sufficient. The Legitimists and Orleanists, who had voted with the Bonapartists for the last two years, now sided with the Republicans against Louis Napoleon, because they saw that he aimed at Imperial power, and was likely to stand in the way of their own expectations.

When Austria expressed an intention to enter into the Germanic confederation, with all the provinces of the empire, the French government protested strongly against such a step, and declared that the consent of all the parties guaranteeing the treaty of Vienna should first be obtained. At the same time additional reinforcements were sent to the French army at Rome, so as to put that expedition again on a war footing. In the Assembly, some members suggested that the expenses of the Roman army of occupation should be defrayed by the Pontifical government; and they complained that France paid all the expenses, while Austria raised taxes in the Roman States, and paid their expenses by these means. But the Minister of War replied that it was not befitting the dignity of France to exact a price for her services. At the same time he stated that no period could be assigned for the cessation of the occupation.

About the same time, a proposition for a general amnesty, signed by 180 of the democratic members, was opposed by the ministry, and rejected by a great majority. The reason alleged by the Minister of the Interior for his opposition to the measure, was, that notwithstanding the calm enjoyed by the nation, matters were too unsettled to allow of so hazardous an experiment.

Early in March, the lectures of M. Michelet, Professor of History and Moral Philosophy in the College of France, were suppressed by a ministerial decree. M. Michelet had held that chair for thirteen years, during which he had published several able historical works, well known to English readers by means of trans-

lations. He was charged with irregularity in delivering his lectures; but the second charge, which stated that he had introduced the politics of the day, appears to have formed "the head and front of his offending." This we infer from the decree itself, which simply charges him with expressing "erroneous notions, which now offend the public mind." M. Michelet replied that he was attacked by the Jesuits and the enemies of France, for instructing the youth in their duties as citizens. About three or four hundred students, who had attended the suppressed lectures, presented a petition against the decree of suspension to the Assembly; but this proceeding produced no effect, and several of the students were arrested for riotous conduct.

About the same time the National Guards of Strasburg were disarmed and dissolved, because they had enthusiastically celebrated the anniversary of the 24th of February, 1848; and the National Guards in all the principal cities and towns of France shared the same fate, under one pretext or another.

A bill was passed in the Assembly soon afterwards, for continuing the National Guards in their actual state until the adoption of an organized law. At the same time the statistics of the National Guards of Paris showed that this force had been reduced from 250,000 to 26,000, exclusive of the suppressed legion of artillery. About the same time disturbances took place in several of the provinces, which were attributed to the growing influence of Socialism. About 7,000 Socialists having attended the funeral of one of their number at Lyons, Gen. Castellane issued a proclamation, limiting the number of persons who could be present at any future interments to 300. He also prohibited the sale of fire-arms, except to persons who had a certificate of good conduct.

About the beginning of April, the ministry resigned; and much difficulty was experienced in forming another. After a considerable delay, Léon Faucher was appointed Premier, Baroche, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Fould, of Finances, General Randon, of War, Rouher, of Justice, and Chasseloup Laubat, of Public Instruction. The premier explained the views of the new administration in the Assembly, on the 10th of April, in a speech expressing loyalty to the constitution, and a firm determination to uphold order, and give efficiency to the Executive.

M. St. Beuve, acting in concert with General Changarnier, complained that the Chief of the Executive had re-appointed to office the very men in whom the Assembly had declared their want of confidence in January last; and he moved a resolution, declaring that the Assembly had no confidence in the Ministry, but the motion was rejected by a majority of 327 against 275. The Assembly at the same time voted 200,000 francs for celebra-

ting the anniversary of the proclamation of the Republic, on the 4th of May. Soon after, they rejected a motion to allow newspapers to be sold in the streets; and adopted, without a division, a motion prohibiting all such sales.

Various discussions took place in May, regarding a revision of the constitution, which would admit of the immediate re-election of Louis Napoleon to the Presidency. Many of the Legitimists favored this policy, because they thought that France was not yet prepared to re-establish the old regime, and that the best course was to keep the present incumbent in the Presidential chair for another term. Several of the Orleanists favored the revision from similar motives; and the Bonapartists of course supported a policy which tended to prolong the power of their chief. But the Republicans, of all grades, opposed the revision; and it soon became evident that the measure could not be accomplished by any legal means.

About the end of May, the Assembly, after a very stormy debate, passed a bill placing the National Guards under the authority of the Executive and its officers. This and the previous measures of the Assembly, in reference to the same force, may be said to have removed all serious obstacles to the establishment of a military despotism in France.

The French colony of Algeria still continued to be the scene of war and bloodshed. On the 11th of April, a conflict took place near Bougia, between a detachment of French troops, under Col. de Wengy, and a Kabyle force, under the pretended prophet, Boo Barghela. The Arab horsemen were routed at the beginning of the engagement, by a charge of the French cavalry. The artillery in the meantime kept up a sharp fire on their infantry; and a detachment of French infantry charged upon them, and completed the defeat. The adherents of Barghela were much disconcerted at the issue of this conflict; for he had promised them, in the name of Heaven, that they should obtain a complete victory.

The French forces immediately afterwards entered Lower Kabylia, where they encountered a desperate resistance from the inhabitants. But they drove them from all their positions, and burnt many of their towns and villages. This was done by the order of Gen. d'Hautpoul, who was reprimanded for issuing such an order by the Minister of War; and he was recalled in consequence. Most of the Kabyle tribes now submitted to the French. The loss of the Kabyles in this contest was reckoned at 437 killed, and about 1,200 wounded: the French had 100 killed, and 300 wounded.

About the same time various difficulties arose in Algeria regarding the ownership of land. In Mohammedan countries, the

State holds the fee of all lands, the occupant having no more than a life interest in it, at the most. Upon the conquest of the territory, France succeeded to the rights of former Deys; but as she did not enforce her rights, the tenants considered themselves owners of the fee. Much speculation consequently took place in the purchase and sale of titles to such lands; and it was found that the natives had frequently sold the same land to three or four different parties. A bill was introduced and passed by the Legislative Assembly, enacting that all rights acquired by the native tribes, previous to the passing of the present law, or tacitly admitted as such by the French government, were to be looked upon as valid and legal, but that all transfers of property from one Mussulman to another, should be governed by the Mussulman law. This enactment was calculated to produce many disputes and much litigation, as it introduced a new and incongruous element, while it continued the old institutions.

Early in May, the president went on a tour through the provinces; and while at Dijon, he delivered a speech in which he expressed an opinion that France would never return to the old regime under any form, and that the views of the republicans were impracticable theories.

These declarations consequently told powerfully upon the Legislative Assembly, and upon the nation generally. It was now very evident that Louis Napoleon aimed at absolute power; and the friends both of republicanism and of legitimacy became his decided opponents. The committee appointed by the Assembly to report on the revision of the constitution, did not contain a single Bonapartist; and, henceforth, the president and the Assembly may be said to have stood in decided opposition to each other; and the latter lost its hold on the national mind by its reactive tendencies. This was very evident from several measures which had been previously passed; and the Assembly showed the same disposition at the time, by voting a prolongation of the law suppressing clubs for another year. This measure, like every other emanating from despotic power, was defended under the plea of necessity.

The committee on the revision of the constitution reported in favor of a total revision, on the 25th of June; and the report was made by M. de Tocqueville, well known for his "*Democracy in America*."

The Bonapartists favored a revision, in order to render Louis Napoleon eligible after the expiry of his current term, which he was not as the constitution stood. The Legitimists and Orleanists also supported a revision, because each party hoped that some change might be introduced favorable to the ultimate success of

their respective views, in a constitution adapted during the spring-tide of republicanism.

The debates in the Assembly at this time were quite stormy. L. Faucher, Minister of the Interior, having used some very strong expressions during a debate on the organic law of the National Guards, in replying to a speech of M. Lepelletier, who had attacked him, the whole body of the ultra-republicans rushed towards the tribune, and threatened him with personal violence. The Legitimists advanced to defend the friend of monarchy; a scuffle took place between the two parties; and the President of the Assembly had much difficulty in restoring order.

About the end of June, M. De St. Beare introduced a measure for a commercial reform, by modifying the present restrictive tariff, so as to bring about a gradual approach to free trade. M. Thiers opposed the motion in a set speech; and it was rejected by a majority of 428 to 199.

About the same time many petitions were presented to the Assembly, praying for a revision of the constitution. The whole number of signatures was about a million; but the movement was a decided failure.

GERMANY.

The Germanic States at this period presented the same spectacle, generally, as the western parts of Continental Europe—a return to the former condition of affairs, and a gradual undoing of whatever had been established, in consequence of the popular demonstrations of 1848. At the same time, the expectations of German unity were daily vanishing into air, and turned out to be as illusory as those lately entertained by the patriotic party among the Italians.

One of the most important events in Germany, during the first half of 1851, was the settlement of the long-pending difficulties between Denmark and the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Early in January the Austrian and Prussian commissioners arrived at Kiel, and informed the provisional government of Holstein that two days would be allowed them to consider whether they would accept or reject the proposition made in the name of the German Diet.

The provisional government submitted those conditions to the decision of the Chamber of Representatives at Kiel on the 10th. They were: 1. Immediate cessation of hostilities against Denmark; 2. Withdrawal of the Holstein army from the Schleswig territory, relinquishing all its positions on the Eider; 3. Reduction of the army two-thirds; 4. Dissolution of the Chamber of

Representatives at Kiel; and 5. Immediate cessation on the part of Holstein of all warlike preparations.

The Assembly was convoked at 8 P. M., in the evening, and the discussion, which was very animated, lasted till near six o'clock on the morning of the 11th, when submission to the above five points was adopted by 47 votes against 28.

It was observed that the Duke of Augustenburg, a member of the Chamber, and one of the chief promoters of the revolution, spoke for submission, and thereby induced two or three members to vote with him. M. Beseler, who may be regarded as the leader of the war party, immediately tendered his resignation, and left Kiel. Count Reventlow was called upon to take charge of the provisional government.

This decision of the Chamber in effect restored matters to their former position, and placed the duchies under the King of Denmark, according to the provisions of the Congress of Vienna.

The Stadtholders now published a proclamation, in which they stated that since the Germanic Confederation had resolved to enforce the treaty of peace of the 2d of July, 1850, and had at the same time promised to protect the rights of Holstein, as well as the vested right and ancient connection between that duchy and Schleswig, they had thought it their duty to decree the cessation of hostilities. At the same time they protested that they had placed the rights of their country under the protection of the Germanic Confederation. They also expressed their thanks to the army, the navy, and the population at large, and stated that they relied on the maintenance of order. The Holstein Diet soon afterwards declared that it agreed to this course, but at the same time protested, in case of definitive arrangements, against any violation of the rights of the country. Next day the Stadtholders issued a proclamation to the army, in which they stated that the Danish army would retreat, with the exception of a small number sufficient to preserve order and tranquillity in Schleswig; that the Schleswig-Holstein army would retreat across the Eider, reserving only a portion which was to garrison the fortresses of Rendsburg and Friedrichsort, and the territories belonging to them; two-thirds of the troops to be dismissed on leave, and the rest to go into cantonments.

This decision of the Holsteiners was, no doubt, the effect of the near approach of a well-appointed Austrian army, consequent on the renewed harmony between Austria and Prussia, and the interference of Russia. The pacification was also favored by the British government; but its exertions appear to have had little influence on the result. To secure the pacification, a division of the Austrian army of intervention took possession of the city of

Hamburg, about the end of January, on which occasion the Senate of that city issued the following decree :

“The realization of the peace between Prussia and Denmark, concluded on the 2d of July of last year, and ratified by all the German governments, has, according to communications made to the Senate by the Austrian and Prussian governments, called for the adoption of measures which, on strategical grounds, considering the geographical site of Hamburg, will make it inevitably necessary that some divisions of the troops now on their march to establish peace in the duchy of Holstein should be received here. However much the Senate may lament that this city and the surrounding district could not be spared this burden, it entertains yet the confident hope that the people of Hamburg will not refuse these troops a suitable reception. The Senate, on its part, will omit no measures that will make the burden lighter to their fellow-citizens. It has ordered, therefore, a voluntary entertainment of these troops, as far as that is practicable, and what further burdens are necessary on this occasion will, by constitutional means, as much as possible be alleviated.”

Soon afterwards, the Austrian corps occupied the whole line of the Holstein frontier. The fortresses of Rendsburg and Friedrichsort were delivered up to the Danish troops about the 9th of February, by the Austrian commanders, after having been previously occupied by Austrian and Prussian troops. The inhabitants beheld these proceedings in gloomy silence.

A new government was formed, and entered on its functions about the 1st of February. It consisted of the Federal and Danish Commissioners, supported by a council of the chief noblemen and landed proprietors of the duchies. When this government was organized the Stadtholders resigned; and the former proceeded immediately to abolish all the laws, decrees, and ordinances which had been published since the insurrection in March, 1848, and to restore matters to their former condition.

Thus ended the Schleswig-Holstein war, at least for the present. As the pacification was produced by the intervention of foreign governments, whose power could not be resisted, we can hardly hope that the seeds of discontent and future troubles have been by any means eradicated, and that they will not spring forth on some future occasion.

In *Hesse-Cassel*, the Prince returned to the capital on the 26th of December, preceded by a body of Austrian troops. These were received at the Frankfort gates by bands of the Prussian and Federal army, which then occupied Hesse. The Elector entered the city next day in a carriage, amidst profound silence and gloom, the troops as well as the populace ap-

pearing discontented and sad. Notwithstanding the Elector's return, Count Leinengin, the Federal Commissioner in Cassel, continued to rule matters at his will, and decreed martial law against any person making disturbance in the streets.

A new Conference of delegates from all the members of the Confederation met at Dresden, about the end of December, with a view to settle its internal difficulties. But the views of different parties were so conflicting, that little progress was made in effecting the desired settlement. The smaller States were dissatisfied with the number of votes allowed them in the diet; and their opposition was silently acquiesced in by Prussia. But it afterwards appeared that Prussia and Austria were thoroughly united in their determination to preserve a complete control over the affairs of Germany, and to resist any real concession to the smaller States. Upon this, the Hanoverian deputy withdrew. The smaller States, including the kingdoms of Saxony, Hanover and Bavaria, were willing to have popular representation introduced as an element in the Federal government, in order to increase their own influence. But the delegates of the two great powers resisted such a proposal, as introducing a vexatious and dangerous element.

In this conference, Austria aimed mainly at two things; to prevent any concession whatever to liberalism in the construction of the Federal compact, and to introduce all her territories, Slavic, Italian and Magyar, into the Confederation, on the same footing as her German dominions, so that she might obtain the aid of the whole force of the Union to secure and control her disaffected and motley provinces, and also acquire a preponderating influence in the Diet. In order to procure the consent of Prussia to this arrangement, she offered this power the same general privileges as herself in the Diet. But the proposal was resisted by Prussia; and France, Britain and Russia also protested against the measure, as it was thought that it would give Austria too much power, and virtually restore the old German Empire. As far as we can judge, it would have delivered Austria from being again placed in the humiliating predicament in which she recently found herself, when her troops had been driven out of Hungary by the insurgents. But the measure would by no means favor the sway of absolutism; for the liberal spirit which is now prevalent in Germany will probably spread, in despite of all the efforts of her sovereigns to suppress it; and Austria could not long look to the other States of Germany for efficient aid in suppressing demands for liberal institutions.

After many proposals had been made to the Conference, and all to no purpose, Prussia addressed the following circular to the

States of the Confederation, inviting them to follow her example in joining the Frankfort Diet :

“The termination of the Dresden Conferences and the establishment of the new Federal constitution having been delayed beyond our original expectations, and the necessity of a legal Federal authority becoming more and more imperative by the events of the time, his Majesty’s government has maturely considered as to the measures it out to take to supply the deficiency. For that purpose it has been thought suitable that all the members of the Confederation should co-operate to restore the activity of the Federal Diet as it was according to the Federal Legislature previous to the year 1848. It is not denied that the Federal constitution is capable and, indeed, in want of improvements, and such his Majesty’s government would not oppose, nor would it terminate the Dresden Conferences without a completion of their labors. On the contrary, it will exert itself to bring those Conferences to a favorable result ; and hoping for the accomplishment of that object, his Majesty’s government is convinced that the restoration of an acknowledged Federal organ will promote that purpose, by giving the validity of Federal resolutions to the modifications that may be agreed upon at Dresden. Trusting that your government will agree with these views, I beg to be informed of such consent at your earliest convenience. It is also desirable that the same information should be conveyed to your representative at Dresden, &c.”

Shortly afterwards, the Austrian government sent a circular to all the German Courts, in which it was stated that the indefinite continuation of the Dresden Conference seemed useless ; but as negotiations were still pending between the Courts of Berlin and Vienna, on the understanding that all the Austrian States should be admitted into the Confederation, it was desirable to come to an agreement on this point, and make a common proposal before the close of the Conference. But should the two powers fail in coming to terms, it proposed that further negotiations on the questions of Federal re-organization should be reserved for the Frankfort Diet. It also proposed that such of the labors of the Conference as had received the consent of all parties, up to the 15th of May, should be submitted to the diet for formal sanction.

Nothing further was accomplished by the Conference, which closed on the 15th of May, when its business was transferred to the Diet. It passed the following resolution at its final sitting :

“Whereas, by the concurrence of all the States to the Frankfort Diet, a general acknowledged organ of the Confederated German States has sprung into existence ; whereas the action of the Commissions of the Conferences has been concluded by the submis-

sion of their respective reports; and whereas, according to the Protocol of this day, a conviction has been obtained that all the Federal States agree as to the modes and objects of their endeavors, but that an immediate and unconditional assent of all the Federal governments to all the proposals of the Commission could not be obtained, it has been thought expedient to close the Conferences. In so doing all the Federal governments declare themselves to be generally agreed on those points which the Commissions established as leading points, and on this basis they promise to continue the consultations in the Federal Diet. The propositions of the first Commission in particular, respecting the expedition of the transaction of business in the Diet and the preparation of a number of troops to be placed at the disposal of the said Diet, are acknowledged by all the governments to be useful, expedient, and necessary. They consequently promise to instruct their agents to assent to these proposals, whenever the same are submitted to the sanction of the Diet."

The whole upshot of the Conference, therefore, was, that the Confederation was restored to its condition before 1848, so that all parties were disappointed, although Austria succeeded in preventing all concessions to liberalism.

Various prosecutions and expulsions occurred in several of the States, for the part enacted by the offending individuals during the temporary triumph of the popular cause; and the press was still further restricted, so that matters returned nearly, although not precisely, to the starting point. But the feelings of the masses appeared decidedly hostile to the reaction. The foreign troops, quartered in several of the smaller States, had various difficulties with the populace. This was particularly the case at Hamburg and the vicinity. Early in June, high words were exchanged between some of the inhabitants of the suburb of St. Paul, at Hamburg, and the Austrian soldiery stationed there. The latter drew their swords and attacked the people. The attack was at first repulsed; but they returned with a reinforcement of their comrades. They were again compelled to flee; and, amidst the confusion, a cry was raised that the soldiers had cut down a man. They were hotly pursued in consequence; and, as they turned on their pursuers, a sharp conflict ensued. An Austrian patrol now came up, and the officer in command summoned the people to disperse at once. The people not having immediately complied, the troops made an indiscriminate onslaught on people of all ages, and fifteen were killed. This proceeding produced a strong feeling of indignation against the Austrian soldiers; and the Senate of Hamburg transmitted a protest against their proceedings to Vienna, Frankfurt, and Berlin. At the same time, they protested against the

occupation of the suburb of St. Paul by Austrian troops. Nevertheless, an additional force of infantry, cavalry and artillery, was quartered in the scene of these disturbances.

Soon afterwards, a similar scene was enacted at Altona, which originated nearly in the same way. A detachment of soldiers, under the command of a subaltern, was ordered to disperse the populace. They were received with a volley of stones, and compelled to retreat. Another detachment of troops was then ordered on, and they were directed to fire over the people's heads. This proved ineffectual; and the military fired in earnest, when eight persons were killed, and upwards of thirty wounded.

Such scenes have produced bitter feelings of exasperation against the ruling powers; and although the people were subdued for the time, the hidden fires of animosity and discontent must still rankle in their breasts, to break forth on some future occasion.

PRUSSIA.

The debates in the Chambers, or Parliament of this country, during the first half of 1851, tended rather to exhibit the views of different parties than to produce important results. Early in March, Baron Vincke moved, in the Lower House, for a committee to inquire into the state of the nation; but it was negatived by a majority of 228 against 41, indicating that the reactionary party controlled that body. About the same time, the hall of the Upper Chamber was completely destroyed by an accidental fire, and nothing was saved except the Parliamentary archives and the library.

A law restraining the liberty of the press passed the Chambers early in May, and was promulgated soon afterwards. It was very unpopular with the liberal party; and we should judge, from its very severe tenor, that Prussian liberty is nearly on a par with that of France and Austria. The Chambers were closed on the 9th of May by a speech from the throne, which was read by proxy. As this document gives a view of the labors of the Chambers, we subjoin it in full:

"Gentlemen: The Prussian Chambers have reached the term of their second regular session. Public affairs have for four months appealed to their anxious attention and strenuous exertions. Their deliberations opened at a critical and much-disturbed juncture. All the military resources of the nation were called out to meet threatening dangers on a scale that the Prussian people had never before seen; and with a success that has given the Prussian people a full sense of their own strength, and has commanded the respect of foreign nations. Circumstances in the

meantime intervened which the Government of his majesty deemed it their duty to take advantage of, in order to avoid a war with brother races. But there were other subjects which, in the then state of things, appealed to the attention of the Chambers. The patriotism of the two Chambers has nevertheless avoided conflicts which would have been only fit to endanger the position of Prussia abroad, and to prejudice her interests at home, whilst they would have filled her enemies, both external and internal, with hope. With zeal have you, gentlemen, fulfilled your duties, and entitled yourselves to the thanks of your country. Thirty-four bills, having passed through the chambers, have been laid before the government, and have, in part, received the royal sanction. You have also the satisfaction, gentlemen, of having put the last hand to a criminal code, urgently needful, and which has been in process of preparation for many years. You have, by your deliberations on the class and classified income tax, which has passed into law, furnished a means of meeting the necessities of the State, by which the poorer classes will not only be spared the burthen of tax-gathering, but the taxes themselves will be much lightened. The State expenditure for the year 1851 is settled; and by the grant of eleven and a half million thalers you have furnished the government with means of covering the cost occasioned by the calling out of the military strength of the land, which was not without manifold and permanent advantages for the army itself. If many law projects have not during the session been brought to maturity, the discussions to which they have been subjected, and the petitions which have been received respecting them, have at least given the Government abundant materials for their careful consideration. You have, gentlemen, by the decisions you have come to, relative to the bills that have been laid before you, proved that in all essential matters the Government and the Legislative bodies entirely agree. It is the desire of the Government to maintain and further to promote this agreement by the careful observance and vigorous execution of the laws. A retrospect of this session is also calculated to corroborate the conviction that the good sense of Prussia remains undisturbed under the new forms of the constitution, and that the main condition of the development of the future destinies of Prussia must be the maintenance of historic foundations, that the convulsive period we have just passed through has not been able to shake. The enemies of this beneficial development, the enemies of all divine and human ordinances, are as restless as the passions that agitate them. But the revolution, in whatever form it may show itself, will find his majesty's Government watchful and firm, and Prussia armed. The threatening position of these enemies makes

it, other reasons apart, the most urgent duty of all German Governments no longer to leave Germany without a central power, recognised on all sides, at home and abroad. Whether the German Governments return to the old forms of the Diet, or whether the (by no means abandoned) plans of a re-organization of the confederation be brought into effect, the independent development of Prussia will be in no respect, in either case, endangered. But the truest and surest guarantee for a happy and glorious future, for political and material improvement, for the increasing internal welfare of the land, and its power and influence abroad, you will find, gentlemen, in the indefatigable co-operation and cordial unanimity of all those who in truth and loyalty have the old motto, the old inscription, written on their hearts—'With God, for King and Fatherland.'"

The budget for 1851 estimated the receipts at 93½ millions of thalers, and the expenditures at 93 millions. More than half the revenue arises from the taxes, and most of the remainder from the postal service, and a monopoly of salt. The expenses of the war department were estimated at 23½ millions of thalers, and those of finance at 17¾ millions; public works, 12½ millions; home department 4, and religious affairs 3½ millions.

A new trade law, passed by the Chambers at their last session, had given much dissatisfaction by its greatly interfering with the former pursuits of tradesmen and mechanics. So much litigation arose from it, that it was expected each trade in Berlin would sue the other trades, in order to determine what occupations belonged to them; and if all claims were listened to, it was said that it would be necessary to go to half a dozen shops for the component parts, in order to get one article complete.*

* As a specimen of the litigations arising from this source, we subjoin an account of a suit against the barbers by the wig-makers, in which the latter wished to monopolize the business of hair-cutting. The case was formally heard before the magistrates. It was urged on behalf of the barbers that, in the abstract, there is no distinction between the hair of the chin and the hair of the head; the form of the instrument used to remove it did not affect the question; whether the operation was performed by the razor or scissors was a matter of indifference. The office of the barber was to remove superfluous hair wherever it grew: therefore, they had as good a right to clip as to mow. The wig-makers, evading the abstract question of right, represented that the barbers do not confine themselves to clipping, but comb, brush, trim, curl, oil, wash, anoint, and otherwise dress and adorn the heads of customers, and that these higher branches of the art belonged of right to the wig-makers, who alone can legally create a *chevelure*. The barbers rejoined that the business of the wig-makers only began where that of the barbers ended, when there was no hair left to cut; with perfect baldness the head became the property of the artist in perukes, and at this point the barbers were ready to abandon it, retaining only a right of property in the chin. The magistrates considered the force of the objection, and the barbers triumphed.

The King of Prussia met his brother-in-law, the Emperor of Russia, at Warsaw, on the 18th of May. The former was accompanied by his prime minister, M. Manteuffel, and the latter by the celebrated diplomatist, Count Nesselrode. It was reported that an offensive and defensive alliance between the two powers was consequently concluded, the object of which was to stem the revolutionary spirit of the age.

AUSTRIA.

Notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the Austrian government to bring matters to the condition in which they stood before the popular movements of 1848, there were several indications that order could not be maintained on the footing proposed. Its attempts to Germanize the Magyars were received in such a manner as to indicate that all movements of that kind would be fruitless; and the unmistakable indications of sullen discontent, in almost every part of the empire, led to the supposition that the old regime could not be permanently maintained in Austria.

The first jury trial took place at the capital on the 15th of January; and it was attended by M. de Schmerling, the Minister of Justice, and a crowded audience. The culprit was a girl, charged with incendiarism, and was sentenced to three years' hard labor.

The police of Vienna were assimilated to soldiers, early in January. They patrolled the streets during the day, armed with muskets, bayonets, and swords; and at night the bayonets were fixed, so that they looked like military sentinels. These changes were bitterly complained of by the people; but their complaints were unheeded. During the same month a conspiracy was discovered at the capital, which caused much uneasiness in official circles. Seventy of the wealthiest men in the city were arrested; and two battalions of the garrison were removed to Presburg and Brunn, as they were thought to be disaffected. The 4th of March was said to be the day fixed upon for the outbreak.

At the same time considerable reinforcements were sent to the Austrian army in Italy, on account of the general dissatisfaction which manifested itself in Lombardy in the form of numerous conspiracies. An imperial ordinance was also published, dividing the Austrian territories in Italy into two provinces—those of Lombardy and Venice; and a local administration was appointed for each, to reside in the cities of Milan and Venice. A Lieutenant was placed at the head of each administration, who was responsible to the Ministry at Vienna, to whom all appeals against his decisions were to be presented. Many arrests were made, and a

great number of those taken were either shot or hanged; and in several instances for offences which are usually considered undeserving of so severe a punishment, such as having arms concealed in their houses, distributing revolutionary writings, and speaking disrespectfully of the government. About the same time, the newspaper "*Il Milanese*" was suspended, for having uttered some ironical remarks on the authorities.

In the Venetian territories, an amnesty was published for some of the political refugees, early in March. But several refused to avail themselves of this permission to return to their native country, being unwilling to live under a despotic government; and an edict of denaturalization was accordingly issued against them.*

Early in the spring, the Emperor made a tour through his Italian territories, and at Venice was received with enthusiasm, as he restored to that city the privileges of a free port. As a testimony of their joy for this act, the municipality placed 2,000 florins at the disposal of the Cardinal Patriarch, for the purpose of being distributed to the poor. The trade of the city had been nearly ruined by the withdrawal of the right which had now been restored; and hence their joy at the act. While at Trieste, the titular Duke of Bordeaux dined with him, and received marked attention. The Ban Jellachich, also, came about the same time, and paid his respects.

In Milan, it had become a common practice to affix revolutionary placards and symbols on buildings during the night. This was done by some unknown republicans; and the owners gave offence to the authorities by not removing them with sufficient despatch. They, therefore, gave notice that persons who should offend in this way, would be fined ten florins (dimes). These fines were to form a fund, out of which 100 florins would be given as a reward for discovering any person who had posted up such documents. If the fund should not be sufficient for this purpose, the respective parishes were to make up the deficiency.

* The proceedings of the officials were conducted with great secrecy; but facts occasionally transpired to indicate their nature. A man was accused, for example, of petty larceny, and lashed to extort a confession so severely that he was conveyed to the hospital, where his life was for some time despaired of, gangrene having supervened. It was afterwards discovered that the real culprit was a woman.

CHAPTER IX.

General aspect of the Italian States—Sardinia—Tuscany—severe measures of the Grand Duke—Treaties of Sardinia—speech of Marquis d'Azgelio—The French in Rome—Gen. Gemeau fortifies St. Angelo—robberies in the Papal States—official acts of the Roman government.—Naples—Arbitrary acts of the government—arrests &c.—Spain—Fall of the Narvaez ministry—Cortes dissolved—address of the Marquis Albayda—liberty of the press—the new Cortes.—Portugal—Insurrection of Saldanha—flight of Thomar—Saldanha's proclamation—is appointed Premier—his measures.—Switzerland.—Disturbances in Berne—political refugees—outbreak in Freiburg.

ITALY.

THERE was in the year 1851 a great similarity between the circumstances of this country and those presented in the Austrian dominions,—reactionary proceedings on the part of the government, accompanied frequently with exhibitions of cruelty, and sullen discontent on the part of the people. The hopes of political ameliorations, which had been so common within the last few years, entirely vanished for the present; and the expectation of a general union of all Italians under one federal and constitutional government shared the same fate. The masses of the people must become more intelligent and moral before any great progress can be made towards effecting those results, which many believed to be close at hand.

The only exception to the general reaction was presented by the Sardinian dominions, where some gleams of freedom still appear, and which it was hoped would in time kindle a light that would ultimately illumine that classic peninsula.

In the latter part of December, 1850, the government of Tuscany directed that the students of the Universities should frequent certain religious conferences, to be held by Professors of Theology. The first conference of the kind was held in the church of San Vigilio, at Sienna, where the archbishop, and all the University authorities attended. But the greater part of the students, losing all respect for the sacred character of the place, and the sacerdotal character of the archbishop, interrupted the proceedings by the most irreverent cries and howls. The Grand Duke consequently ordered that all the students should lose a year of study, and that the University should be closed till the authors of the disturbances had been discovered by a judicial inquiry.

About the same time the Grand Duke empowered the authorities to imprison for a year any person of whom they might entertain political suspicions. The last remains of the National Guard of Tuscany were dissolved by an edict, dated the 31st of

May. A few days before, some disturbances took place in the church of Santa Croce at Florence, when the troops and police attacked the assembled multitude, and many were killed. The "*Statute*" published an account of the massacre; and it was suppressed by the government in consequence.

Early in the summer, Count Guicciardini, a Tuscan nobleman, was banished from Italy, because he had been found reading the Bible, and had avowed opinions akin to those of Protestants. He withdrew to France, and thence to England.

In the Sardinian Chambers, M. Brofferio presented a proposition for abolishing the penalties imposed on persons who had committed any offences against the Catholic religion. But as he did not propose any other punishment as a substitute, the Chamber refused to take his proposition into consideration.

Commercial and navigation treaties were made by Sardinia with Great Britain and Belgium early in the spring, with the former for twelve, and with the latter for eight years. Both establish perfect reciprocity of commercial intercourse, on the footing of the most favored nations. A treaty of commerce was also made with Switzerland. These treaties gave great offence to the Papal and Tuscan governments, who disrelished a close and friendly relation to countries having constitutional governments. They also refused passports to many of their subjects who wished to visit the World's Fair; and his Majesty of Naples was still more cautious in this respect.

The third anniversary of the proclamation of the constitution, was celebrated in the Sardinian dominions with great enthusiasm. At Turin, the cries of "Victor Emanuel II. forever! the constitution and Italy forever!" were universal. In reply to a question from Signor Valerio, Marquis d'Azeglio, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, said that the government was making every effort to restore harmony between the State and the Church, but that it would never sacrifice its duty to the country, in order to obtain that end. As to a league with the other Italian States, he said there was no foundation whatever for the rumor to that effect. A bill introduced into the Chamber of Deputies, to regulate and diminish the admissions into monasteries, was received with cheers from all parts of the House; but the ministry opposed it, as it would embarrass the pending negotiations with the Court of Rome; and it was not passed.

In the same House, on a debate upon the budget of foreign affairs, the Marquis d'Azeglio delivered a speech remarkable for its honorable sentiments; and it was received by the Chamber with loud applause. As utterances of this kind were quite rare on the Continent, we give an extract from it, in the Marquis' own words:

"A political conduct founded upon justice and good faith has always been the best and will continue to be the most useful. Much has been said of late on State expediency; for my part, I do not believe those two different standards of morality, one for the men who govern, and one for those who are governed, and I do not think State expediency should deviate from common morality. Absolutism and the policy of bad faith have had their time. They were in vigor when public affairs were managed by a king and a few ministers, and often by a favorite or a mistress. But at that time the periodical press was weak, the means of communication rare, and public opinion without power. But now, if I but touch public opinion, it vibrates instantly from Edinburgh to Moscow with the rapidity of lightning. I cannot deny that there is a terrible and obscure problem to be solved, the future destiny of society. I do not pretend to solve it, but I affirm on my conscience that society can only find repose under a government of good faith. I say it is our duty to sacrifice an immediate advantage in order to attain the more important advantages attached to a reputation of purity and honesty. This has been our principal guide, both in domestic and foreign policy. Remember that when we accepted office, the country, shaken by a recent misfortune, uncertain as to what might still be in reserve for it, agitated by parties, suspecting every one, could only be pacified by confidence and concord. The ministry sought to deserve the former, and to train the minds of men to the latter. If it has succeeded, it owes it first to God and then to the probity of the King, to the prudence of parliament, to the virtues of the whole nation, because Piedmont is an old land of probity and honor. As we have acted with respect to our home policy, so we have in our foreign relations. The first principle of justice is the independence, the honor and dignity of the nation. Europe, which for some time labored under an erroneous impression concerning us, has seen by the line we follow that we are not a people of anarchists, but a people desirous of liberty and independence. And now it is universally known that, while we do not seek what belongs to others, we are ready to die rather than give up what is ours. We wish to justify this flattering testimony, and we will strive to maintain in our diplomacy those traditions of honor and loyalty. Gentlemen, there are persons who have accused us of having done little or nothing. I answer that, within the limits of our means, we have done what was in our power for the good of the country. We have lived, and that is something; and, please God, we shall continue to live, free, independent, and honored."

The threatening attitude assumed by Austria, then concentrating troops on the Sardinian frontiers, led the government to

put the country in a state of defence, and to take all practicable steps to secure it against invasion.

In the Roman territories, the most striking feature was the bad understanding existing between the government and the French troops. These were sufficiently odious from the first, to the great mass of the people, who were mostly attached to the Republic; and their failing to second the government fully, in carrying out reactionary proceedings, and enforcing very severe measures against all who were in any way concerned in the popular government, brought them into disfavor with the hierarchy. They were also disliked for being tainted with liberalism. The Papal and French troops frequently engaged in bloody quarrels; and several of the latter were killed, as the mob always sided with their own soldiers. In consequence of such occurrences, Gen. Gemeau abandoned some secondary posts, and concentrated his men in the vicinity of the Castle of St. Angelo. This measure was rendered the more proper, from the fact that several of the French soldiers had been assassinated, when they were walking through the streets at night, or in taverns. Some of the Romans were tried and shot for such crimes. Gemeau also published a proclamation, suppressing all permissions to carry arms, and requiring them to be surrendered by a given day, after which the houses were to be searched; and every person found in possession of arms was to be tried by a court-martial. The owners of houses were made responsible for the arms that might be found on their premises. On the day that this proclamation was issued, a man was assassinated only about 100 yards from Gen. Gemeau's residence. At the same time he caused 10,000 rations, and a large quantity of powder, to be taken into the Castle of St. Angelo. These measures had the effect of repressing the previous disorders.

The dislike of the French appeared during the carnival, when the mob threw bouquets loaded with stones, and lime-dust. It was thought by some that the mob were countenanced in what they did, and that the government would have greatly preferred an Austrian to a French army of occupation; but the soldiers received it all with the characteristic good humor of their countrymen, so that no collision occurred, although several persons were severely injured by the reckless conduct of the mob.

The municipality were under the disagreeable necessity of paying 500,000 francs to General Gemeau, for lodging money, reparation of barracks, and new beds for the French soldiers. The government was also highly displeased at his ordering some of the Papal soldiers to be shot, when they thought death had not been deserved. Their ill-will had been further heightened by Gemeau's occupying several positions previously held by their

own troops, and his demanding that the Quirinal palace should be given up to him, a demand with which the Pope decidedly refused to comply.

A census of the population of Rome was taken in March. The total number of inhabitants was 170,824. There were 34 prelates, 1,240 clergymen, 1,829 regular ecclesiastics, 1,467 cloistered nuns, and 321 students for the priesthood.

Robbery prevailed in the Papal dominions to an extent even greater than its usual large amount in that country. The brigands were attacked in the Apennine mountains, early in the spring, by columns of Austrian and Papal troops. They attempted to make their escape into Tuscany, but were prevented by a strong body of Austrian troops that guarded the frontiers. Many of them were captured, and upwards of one hundred shot. They were mostly composed of very young men, who submitted to death with great apparent indifference. Several of the troops also were killed. Among the robbers shot was Passatore, notorious for his bold and successful feats, whose real name was Pelloni. On his person were found 700 dollars in gold, a diamond pin, a gold watch, and several strings of pearls. A reward of 3,000 dollars had been set on his head. Thirteen soldiers had been killed, and seven wounded in encounters with his gang, which was composed of about sixty men. His last and most daring feat was the sack of the town of Forlinipopoli, while the inhabitants were at the theatre. He surrounded this building and forced the people, including the police, to sit still, till his followers had pillaged the houses.

The prevalence of robberies was one ostensible reason assigned by the Austrians for occupying several positions in the Papal territories, which was done early in the season. Strong detachments took possession of Bologna, Ferrara, Terni, and other places. But a stronger motive was the fear of an outbreak on the part of the republicans, and a desire to rule the country. The persecutions, arrests on mere suspicion, and arbitrary acts committed by the government, since the French had suppressed the republican administration, had greatly increased the number of those who disliked the temporal sway of ecclesiastics. The spread of such opinions was at the same time increased by the labors of the republican party, both at home and abroad. Some agents of Mazzini landed near Rome, from an English vessel, and widely distributed a revolutionary pamphlet entitled, "*Rome and the Roman States*." They had also in their service a secret press, at which were printed various pamphlets, which exposed the arbitrary acts and reactionary proceedings of the government with great truth and ability. The authorities issued a special commission to

investigate this subject, who were required to spare neither time, labor, nor money, in order to discover the presses and types.

It was said that Cardinal Antonelli, who wholly directed the Papal government, was encouraged in his reactionary course by the Austrian ambassador, with a view of making the Papal government odious to the people, and thus leading them to throw themselves on the protection of Austria. This power unquestionably was anxious to acquire the control of the Ecclesiastical States, as thus she would make herself complete mistress of all Italy; and hence, she had for a long time seized every pretext for sending troops into that country.

The official acts of the government had recently increased the popular discontent. The taxes pressed heavily, and the paper-money in circulation had greatly depreciated in value. A great part of the revenue arose from a heavy duty on tobacco; and many of the republicans, in order to cripple the government, abstained from using any themselves, and urged others to follow the same plan. At Bologna, the authorities published a decree against such practices; and eight young men were imprisoned and several bastinadoed for violating it. At Perugia, a woman was sentenced to receive twenty lashes of the whip, for having insulted some men who were smoking cigars. Yet the sale considerably diminished. A similar decree was soon afterwards published at the capital, announcing that summary punishment should be inflicted on every person who should endeavor to prevent another from using tobacco; and the next day a man named Ercoli was sentenced to the galleys for twenty years, for violating the decree. Another plan adopted by the people to increase the difficulties of the government, was to abstain from buying lottery tickets, from the sale of which the government income was greatly increased.

Another source of discontent was, a recent tax on commerce, industry, and the arts. It was very unpopular, because the ecclesiastics and the aristocracy were exempted, and small capitalists were required to pay nearly as much as the richest. This tax was more grievous on account of the checks suffered by commerce from the late commotions and persecutions, and the depreciation of paper-money. At Rome shops were broken open and plundered almost every night; and the thieves were seldom discovered.

These difficulties, combined with the uneasy state of France and Germany, and the strong anti-papal feeling unexpectedly manifested in England, threw a gloom over the Pontifical government; and there were some rumors that the Pope intended to resign, which, however, were not verified.

NAPLES.

This kingdom presented little more than an unvarying scene of cruel and relentless political persecutions, and a perfidious course of reaction on the part of the king and his advisers. The government were exerting themselves to the utmost, in preparing a strong military force, to aid the Austrians in putting down the constitutional governments of Piedmont and Switzerland. Their party declared that there would be no permanent peace in Europe while these countries were independent. The army amounted, it is said, to 120,000 men; but its efficient force was certainly much less; and no part of it would rank high for either valor or discipline. As might have been expected from so feeble a power, its destination was never realized. The king has enough to occupy his attention in enforcing authority at home, and enough upon his conscience to answer for, in his efforts to suppress the liberties of his own people.

Early in the year, strict regulations for the observance of the Sabbath were promulgated. But, by a strange inconsistency, while a book-store was shut up, a tobacco shop was allowed to be kept open for the reason, that the sale of tobacco is a government monopoly. At the same time, while ordinary clothing stores were closed, masks and masquerade dresses dangled before the doors, throughout the day. The lottery offices, also, were kept open throughout Sunday; nor were any of the theatres closed at night. The motives, therefore, of the authors of those regulations were apparent.

Arrests continued to be made during the spring, in great numbers; and yet the government did not seem to feel satisfied or secure. Among other causes assigned for covert treasons was the promulgation of English opinions; and hence the few Neapolitans who wished to visit the World's Fair were refused passports.

These arrests continued to keep the whole population of Naples in a state of alarm; and the severity and barbarous cruelty with which many of the victims were punished, filled the better portion of them with disgust and horror. This is not the place for the detail of the atrocities of the government, but any of our readers who are curious on the subject, will find some of them in the *Chronicle*, in this volume, under the date of June.

SPAIN.

This ill-fated country continued to exhibit the same historical features for which it has so long been remarkable, court intrigues, civil broils, and an absence of anything like public spirit. Early in

the winter, Gen. Narvaez and his ministry resigned. The Queen Dowager, Maria Christina, who had made a left-hand marriage with a soldier of the name of Munoz, about twelve years ago, and had him raised to the dignity of the peerage, wished that their children should be treated as members of the royal family. Narvaez resisted her attempts to that effect; and hence his abandonment of office. Queen Isabella possesses much less energy of mind than her mother, and hence the Queen Dowager is the actual ruler of Spain. As Narvaez would not do her bidding, she rendered his situation so unpleasant that he was glad to resign.

Narvaez was succeeded by M. Bravo Murillo, whose administration was much less vigorous than that of his predecessor. The opposition in the Cortes became proportionably strong, and the ministry kept their places chiefly by threats of a resignation, and of the return of Narvaez from France, whither he had retired after leaving office. In answer to a question, whether there was any ground of accusation against the former ministry, the new premier declined to assign any. At length, on the 7th of April, the Cortes were dissolved, and a royal decree published, convoking the Electoral Colleges for the 10th of May, and fixing the opening of the new Cortes for the 1st of June. The ministry expected to strengthen their position by a new election. No act of much importance had been passed by the Cortes during the past session.

M. Oreuse, Marquis de Albayda, President of the Spanish Republican Association, circulated an address containing his political views. The government ordered the police to prevent its circulation; but it was very widely circulated notwithstanding. It advocated the union of Spain and Portugal under a republic, and various measures of financial and administrative reform. An outbreak on the part of the liberals was expected, and the government was on the alert to suppress any demonstration of that kind. Discontent was common, both at Madrid and Saragossa. This was partly owing to the late concordat, and partly to the severe measures taken against the press, which was prosecuted with more rigor than ever. The "*Clamor Publico*" was fined one thousand dollars, for having censured the manner in which nine men, said to be Carlists, were recently put to death on the highway, by the troops who escorted them, without any form of trial. Notwithstanding these discontents, such was the influence of the government over the elections, that it was able to secure the return of a great majority of deputies favorable to its measures, at the elections in May.

The outbreak which at this time occurred in Portugal, caused much excitement in Spain. The government showed a strong

desire to interfere. Queen Maria resembles, it is said, her sister of Spain in her private character, and therefore it was feared that the infection might spread and lead to the deposition of Isabella. At the request of the Portuguese cabinet, a Spanish squadron was sent to Lisbon for the purpose of keeping the revolutionary spirit in check; and some steps were taken to raise an army with the same object: but the finances were in such a condition that nothing effective was done; and the British government signified to that of Spain its opposition to an armed intervention in Portugal.

The Cortes were opened on the 1st of June, in the usual form, and with perfect order. The Marquis de Viluma, chief of the protectionist and abolitionist party, was appointed President of the Senate; and this step tended to weaken public confidence in the ministry, while the party of Narvaez opposed the cabinet with undiminished activity. At the same time disturbances in Granada, and some other parts, increased the general feeling of insecurity, so that the future appeared dark and gloomy. The following details of the progress of crime by no means relieved the picture: "The number of men in the penal settlements, both in Spain and in the colonies, on the 31st of December, 1850, was 15,927, to which we have to add 4,250 (among them 1,394 women) who are undergoing other minor punishments, say 20,177 in all, against 17,438 in 1849; showing an increase of 2,739 in 1850. The number of persons awaiting their trial in December, 1850, was 11,300, against 9,589 in December, 1849—an increase of 1,711; so that, taking both items together, the increase at the end of 1850, over the same period in 1849, was 4,450."

PORTUGAL.

The Kingdom of Portugal has long ceased to occupy the conspicuous part in the history of European nations, which it held in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. For more than a hundred years, its counsels have been influenced by Britain; and its history has generally presented little that is interesting to other nations. This state of affairs was changed in the early part of 1851, by an insurrection against the government, headed by the Duke of Saldanha, a nobleman previously distinguished by his zealous adherence to the cause of the Queen.

The ministry of Count Thomar had failed to possess public confidence; promised reforms and retrenchments were not effected; and some outbreak was anticipated by many. But it happened sooner than had been expected, and under different circumstances. Silva Cabral, brother of Count Thomar, had been on

terms of deadly hostility to him since 1848, and had been for some time engaged in uniting by political ties the leaders of the opposition party, Saldanha, Lavradio, and Magalhaes, who carried with them a great majority of the royalist party. But the decided opposition of Saldanha to insurrectionary movements had been regarded as a guarantee for the peace of the kingdom. By these means a powerful political and military combination was effected against the court and the premier. The troops at Mafra, Cintra, and Leiria had been tampered with; and when Saldanha raised the standard of insurrection, early in April, they joined him on the first summons, his name and moderation giving dignity to the movement.

On the 8th of April, Saldanha led those who had joined him towards Santarem, expecting the accession of several regiments of cavalry and infantry at that place. But the King promptly placed himself at the head of the forces in Lisbon, who remained faithful, and by a bold and rapid march, secured the fidelity of Santarem; whereupon Saldanha fell back on Leiria and Coimbra. Count de Casal, who commanded at Oporto, refused to join the insurgents, although he was solicited to do so; and, therefore, after a few days, Saldanha was obliged to take refuge on the other side of the Spanish frontier, the adverse events just mentioned having prevented many of his adherents from joining his standard. It is said that Casal's refusal to co-operate with Saldanha proceeded from the Queen's having promised to confer on him the title of marquis, and that of baroness on his youngest daughter.

While affairs thus appeared adverse to the success of the insurgents, things suddenly took a different turn, as is common in the history of the Peninsula. Casal arrested several of the officers of the garrison of Oporto, on strong suspicions of being in connection with Saldanha. Upon this the garrison revolted in favor of the insurrection; and the count, after making several ineffectual attempts to quell the movement, was obliged to leave Oporto abruptly, accompanied by only one aid-de-camp. A colonel of infantry was shot by the soldiers, about the same time, for attempting to bring his men to obedience.

Saldanha, being informed of all that was transpiring, suddenly moved towards Oporto, and entered that city on the 27th of April, where he was enthusiastically received, and established his head-quarters. Upon receiving news of the outbreak at Oporto, Count Thomar immediately resigned, and embarked on board the British vessel *Montrose*, which landed him at Vigo, whence he went to England.

The insurrection now spread rapidly throughout the kingdom; for the Queen did not call to power any party so decidedly op-

posed to Thomar, as to furnish a guarantee that he would not be again recalled. Many of the troops under the command of the King deserted, and hastened to join Saldanha at Oporto. Two whole regiments moved away under his eye, when formed in marching order. The feeling against the Queen and her husband was so strong, that they durst not, for some time, appear in public; and there were loud cries for her abdication. The King hastened to Lisbon, and resigned his command in chief of the army.

On the resignation of Thomar, the Queen sent for the Duke of Terceira, in order to form a new cabinet from the old Thomar party; but the duke failed in his attempt. A provisional administration was formed, however, by Baron de Luz. The views of Saldanha were not yet well known; and the court party feared that he meant to have the Queen deposed, and a regency appointed until the heir to the throne was of age. But the following proclamation, addressed to the inhabitants of Lisbon, indicated that such were not his intentions:

"Inhabitants of Lisbon!—The flag which I have had the honor to unfurl is so eminently national, that as soon as it was known, that flag was adopted in all parts of the kingdom, in the most sincere, frank, and decided manner. Let us consolidate the throne of her Majesty the Queen Donna Maria II. and her dynasty; let us reform the constitutional charter, let us have really free elections, in order that we may be enabled to have a truly national representation, and justice, liberty, morality, and economy, in the place of the immorality, corruption, and robbery that have been proclaimed as the theory of government.

"In a few days I hope to be among you: I know that the agents of a corrupt and corrupting minister await that moment to give utterance to seditious cries. If this should be done, I shall seize the first who shall be bold enough to do so, and deliver him up to the authorities, that he may be punished. I am fully convinced of the nationality of the banner which I have displayed; persuaded as I am that my countrymen of Lisbon know me, I feel certain that they will do me the justice to believe that I will employ every means in my power to cause the city to be respected.

"The Duke of SALDANHA.

"Head-Quarters, Oporto, May 9, 1851."

This proclamation afforded the only means of ascertaining the exact intentions of Saldanha that had hitherto appeared; and, in connection with his previous opinions, and opposition to the absolutist policy of Thomar, it satisfied the people that he was on the side of liberalism. The insurrection was now, therefore,

triumphant, and it was more popular than it might have otherwise have been, on account of Saldanha's character and circumstances. He was an accomplished gentleman, and a man of liberal education; and though he had been long in power, his pecuniary resources were very limited, the late administration having deprived him of some offices to which he had been appointed on account of his many public services.

Saldanha was now invited by the Queen to form an administration. He accordingly proceeded to Lisbon, where he arrived on the 15th of May, in steam transports, accompanied by 3,000 troops. Their reception was very enthusiastic, and the day was generally observed as a holiday.

Notwithstanding this favorable reception, Saldanha found himself surrounded with difficulties. The various parties who did not approve of any such innovation, stood aloof from him, expecting that their own party views might be promoted by leaving him to struggle with the difficulties in which he had placed himself. The revenues had been anticipated and squandered, and the country generally was in an impoverished and discontented state. Saldanha, therefore, placed himself at the head of the transition ministry, which had been formed by the Baron de Luz, until a suitable permanent ministry could be formed, which was found to be a matter of much difficulty.

Soon afterwards signs of a disposition hostile to the revolution, appeared among several regiments of the army, stationed at a distance from Lisbon; and in some instances they had declared against Saldanha. But all demonstrations of this kind were suppressed, and precautionary measures were taken against their recurrence, while Saldanha proceeded with his intended reforms as rapidly as his unfavorable circumstances permitted. He appointed a committee to inquire into the financial condition of the country, and issued three important decrees. One of them removed Don Pedro's interdict against the admission into the House of Peers of all those who signed the requisition to Don Miguel in 1828, which was well received. Another called a new Cortes, to meet on the 15th of September, with extraordinary powers of reform, and for revising the Constitution. This measure also was approved of by the majority of the nation, although it was quite unacceptable to the abolitionist party.

SWITZERLAND.

As this country has little political influence abroad, and the powers of the federal government are very limited, it offers generally to our notice few occurrences similar to those which engage

our attention elsewhere. Yet within the last few years, it has been the scene of many interesting events, and it will probably continue to claim the notice of the historian for some time to come.

Early in January, serious disturbances broke out in Berne, in opposition to the measures of the government in that canton. These proceeded from some of the radical party, who were dissatisfied with the government. Trees of liberty were planted in several places, and there were conflicts with the troops; but the insurgents were dispersed without much serious injury on either side.

The protection afforded by the Swiss to political refugees from the surrounding countries, had been a great eye-sore to the absolute governments of Europe, ever since the outbreaks of 1848; and they had been incessantly remonstrating with the federal or central government, to have them expelled. As the Swiss did not feel themselves strong enough to despise such remonstrances, several of the refugees were expelled; but many were not, and the absolute sovereigns seemed too much afraid of trouble nearer home to press the Swiss on that account, although there were many indications that the Helvetic Republic would be suppressed by force, if it appeared that such an enterprise could be accomplished without incurring results which those personages would deem a still greater evil.

A Lombard refugee named Vare, who had been residing at Lausanne, and was supposed to be an agent of Mazzini, was peremptorily expelled and sent to Piedmont. The federal Council also abolished the absolute obligation imposed in July, 1849, on the various cantons, to receive political refugees; and it enforced the decrees relative to the expulsion or transmission of refugees into the interior. They also sent a circular to the governments of the frontier cantons, requesting them not to permit German political refugees to establish themselves within their territories, particularly if they were originally from Baden, even when naturalized in another canton, unless they had been in possession of their civic rights for at least five years, as required by the federal constitution.

In the month of March, an outbreak occurred in the canton of Friburg, caused by the adherents of the suppressed *Sonderbund*. The new government was represented to many of the ignorant German peasants of that canton as being atheistical; and they were told that they would secure the favor of Heaven by overturning it. They were further told that the government was detested, and that a show of force would of itself be sufficient to overturn it. The peasantry accordingly entered the city of Fri-

burg on the 22d of March, pillaged the arsenal, planted two pieces of cannon in commanding situations, and proclaimed the established government at an end. But the city guard, the Council of State, the police, and many of the inhabitants, immediately rose in behalf of the government; and the rebels were summoned to lay down their arms. They replied by a discharge of musketry. A contest then commenced, in which several of the insurgents were killed, and others wounded; and they speedily fled in all directions. Canard, the leader, and many others, were taken prisoners.

On some of them was found a list of a provisional government, charged to draw up a new constitution, and a decree to establish a court-martial, with absolute power. There was also found an intended proclamation, in which it was declared that the existing government was dissolved, its officers deposed, all school-masters suspended from office, and the canton declared in a state of siege; and further, that every person who should refuse to obey the new government, would be instantly shot. A proclamation was now published by the magistrates, in which they declared that the rebellion had been instigated by the fallen theocracy. The Council of State declared the town in a state of siege. But it soon appeared that only a few of the peasantry were concerned in the outbreak; and matters resumed their usual course.

CHAPTER X.

Russia—The Emperor's policy—Museum—Poland incorporated in the Empire—Circassian war.—Turkey and Egypt—Insurrections in Bosnia and Samos—a firman in favor of Christians—Hungarian refugees—dispute respecting the holy places in Syria—difficulties between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt.—Greece—Robberies—J. W. King, the missionary—succession to the throne—dissolution of the Chambers—imbecility and corruption of the government.—Africa.

RUSSIA.

THE absence of all free discussion and communication throughout the Russian empire, and the stringent measures adopted by the government to suppress intercourse between Russian subjects and foreigners, except those of a strictly commercial, public, and diplomatic character, put it out of our power to give anything like a connected history of the wide dominions ruled by the Czar; and we must, therefore, content ourselves with such incidents as we can occasionally collect.

Notwithstanding the efforts of the government to conceal the condition of the empire at large, the state of the finances, and the actual condition of the army and navy, facts occasionally come to light from which we can form a tolerably correct estimate on these points.* There have been indications that Nicholas finds his position at times a difficult one. On the one hand, he dreads the progress of advancing liberalism, the triumph of which, he is sagacious enough to see, would gradually lead to the establishment of democratic republicanism, while he does not see that it will inevitably spread; and on the other hand, he is aware of the degraded condition of the serfs, and anxious for their emancipation, and for their social, though not political, elevation. But here he has been opposed by the old Russian aristocracy, who have been jealous of their ancient privileges, and generally averse to change. They were also displeased with the preference shown towards foreigners in appointments to office, and would rather see some person on the throne over whom they could exercise more control. We may well suppose, therefore, that the Emperor's fear of sharing his father's fate has been by no means groundless. He has acted with caution and moderation, both in public and private life, and prudently gilded the deformities of autocracy by general affability, and extensively patronizing some of the arts and sciences. At the same time he has attempted to secure the attachment of the ignorant masses of his subjects by appealing to their superstitious reverence for the peculiarities of their ancient religious belief and observances, while he has tried to conciliate the good opinion of foreigners by a free outlay of part of the revenues of the empire, for secret services, and compensation to venal authors or journalists. And where this has not answered the purpose, the same end has been attempted by flatteries and honorary titles.

The new Museum of Antiquities, Sculpture and Painting, at Petersburg, which was begun in 1840, was finished in the winter of 1851, and formally inaugurated in the spring. It is constructed entirely of stone and metal, except the doors and flooring. The roof is of iron, and covered with ornaments of copper, which sparkle in the sunbeams. The walls are all marble, and the ground pavements are in mosaic. Round the interior grand court runs a peristyle, composed of 182 monolith Corinthian columns, alternately of marble and granite.

* The Russian government have just published an official report of the census of the empire in 1840, of which the following is a summary:—In European Russia, 52,500,000; in the four Western Siberian districts, 2,150,000; in Russian Poland, 4,800,000; in Finland, 1,000,000; in the territory beyond the Caucasus, 2,500,000; in the districts of Yakutsk, Kamtschatka, Okhotsk, North America and the Kirghis-Kazakish hordes, together, 2,000,000; forming a grand total of 65,000,000 souls.

From the 1st of January, old style, or 13th of the new, the frontier between Russia and Poland ceased to exist, and the latter was henceforth to be treated, in all respects, as an integral portion of Russia.

Early in the spring, an ukase, or imperial edict, was published, with a view to check the national tendency of all Russians in general, and of the nobility in particular, to run into debt for the sake of display and magnificent show.

The war against the Circassians, begun upwards of ten years ago, is not yet terminated. The fact that a handful of barbarous mountaineers has so long resisted her armies, proves the extreme weakness of Russia in aggressive wars. The first half of 1851 was marked by several serious reverses on the part of the Russians.

On the opening of spring, about 500 Lesghi cavalry, under the famous Hadgi Murad, attacked the Russian cantonments near Deschlazor, in Daghistan. They surprised the guards, and carried off a great number of cavalry horses, and a field battery. They were pursued and attacked by a force under Gen. Argatunski, who recovered several of the horses, and killed a number of the Lesghis. But the loss appears to have been greater on the side of the Russians; and the field pieces were not retaken.

In the beginning of June, a force of 25,000 men, of the warlike tribe of the Abedjek, and other independent tribes of the Western Caucasus, led by Mohammed Emir, a lieutenant of Shaml, attacked the Russian entrenchments of the Shenis, and drove the Russian troops, under the command of Gen. Cerebrianoff, beyond the Themer. The engagement was bloody; and the Russians lost about 5,000 in killed and prisoners, while all the spare wagons of the army were barely sufficient to carry off the wounded. The mortality was comparatively greater among the officers than among the privates, as the Circassians selected the former for attack.

In the latter part of June, the Turkmen of the Steppes attacked a detachment of Russian troops stationed at Astrabad, on the southeastern shore of the Caspian, and completely annihilated them. They also burnt five Russian vessels which were then in the harbor. This attack is supposed to have been the result of a league between Shaml and the Turkmen of Khiva.

the Sultan at defiance. The insurgents were opposed by the troops under Omar Pacha, who defeated them in two battles, at Bozowina and Zwornik. The insurrection was then thought to be suppressed; but the contrary soon appeared. Several of the insurgent chiefs united their forces in Kraina, and mustered a formidable array. They were attacked by Mustapha Pacha, early in January, at Jaiza, and defeated, after an engagement of two hours, in which 100 were killed and 40 captured. This check, however, by no means broke the strength of the insurgents, who succeeded in taking the town and citadel of Banjaluka. But 3,000 of their troops were routed at Kozarer, by Omar Pacha; and they were forced to abandon Banjaluka.

On the 19th of March, a large body of the rebels was defeated by Ibrahim Pacha, near Chulissar; and Jarza was now hastily evacuated by the insurgents. The garrison fled into Turkish Croatia, and the government troops occupied the city, where they found all the rebels' artillery. The insurgents now collected their forces round Priedor, with the intention of making a final struggle. They had possession of the town of Bihacz, which was besieged by General Beg, with a strong force of Turks and Arnouts, in the latter part of April. The insurgents, having received considerable reinforcements, made a stout resistance. On the 26th of that month, they gave battle to the imperial troops, and fought with great bravery, the victory inclining to neither side. Next day the fighting was resumed; the insurgents gave way, and the town was taken by storm.

About the beginning of the year, another insurrection broke out in the Island of Samos, because the people absolutely refused to receive as their governor, M. Conemenos. They considered this man devoted to the former Prince of Samos, who was universally detested. The Porte declared the Island in a state of siege, and sent a strong force against the insurgents. Several of them were captured, and the rest fled, so that the insurrection was completely suppressed. A number of the prisoners were afterwards released at Easter, according to custom, in compliance with the application of the patriarchs.

A very important firman, or decree, was published by the Sultan, in the spring, by which the Protestants of Turkey were placed on the same footing as the other Christian denominations of the empire. They were allowed to exercise their religion without the interference of any other community, a privilege which they did not before possess. This act marked a new era in the history of Turkey. Similar privileges had been formerly granted to the Protestants of particular localities, but this decree secured the privilege generally to all Protestants in the empire. It originated

in the attempt of the Armenians to exercise jurisdiction over those who had left their communion, and become Protestants, of which class there were now many congregations in Turkey. The decree was issued partly through the influence of Sir Stratford Canning, the British ambassador, with the Porte.*

The remaining Hungarian refugees at Shumla, who were about 240 in number, were liberated in the spring, and brought to Constantinople. The government gave each of them 300 piasters; and they soon afterwards went to England by sea. After much resistance on the part of Austria, it was also agreed that the refugees at Kutahiah should all be liberated early in autumn.

Difficulties arose, early in 1851, between the Patriarch of the Greek Church and the Roman Catholic Bishop of Beyrout, respecting their rights in Syria, in reference to holy places.† The Court of Rome having been referred to, decided in favor of the bishop. But the Patriarch protested against the decision; and his party declared that they would never submit to any decision of the Roman Legation in Syria. Soon afterwards, M. de Lavalette, the French ambassador at Constantinople, presented to the Sultan an autograph letter from the Pope, and the French President, claiming the right of the Roman Catholics over the Holy Sepulchre and other places, in opposition to the claims of the Greek Catholics. On the other hand, the Russian ambassador delivered to the Sultan a protest in behalf of the latter denomination, in which he stated that when, about fifty years ago, there had been a quarrel between the Greeks and the Armenians, a commissioner had been appointed, consisting of three Ulemas, or Mohammedan doctors, two Greek and two Armenian bishops, and that they had decided in favor of the Greeks. He further stated, that although there were then at Constantinople a French ambassador, Roman Catholic bishops, and a Papal legate, no objection was made to the decision.

In EGYPT, difficulties occurred between Abbas Pacha, the present viceroy of that country, and his sovereign the Sultan. Abbas

* All Christian communities in Turkey, recognized by law, have heads or authorized agents, through whom alone they deal with the government, and who are responsible for the payment of their taxes, and their general good behavior. The small number of Protestants in Turkey, until within the last three years, had prevented them from having any such agents, or consequently being recognized by the government. The present firman, after setting forth the disadvantages under which the Protestants labored, on account of this defect, invites them to choose for themselves respectable and trustworthy men, to act as their agents. The vizier is required to see the law faithfully executed, and to prevent Protestants from being forced to pay fees to other Christian agents, or otherwise wronged.

† Emir Beshir, the old Prince of Lebanon, who figured in the history of Syria upwards of sixty years ago, died at Constantinople in the latter part of winter. He was 94 years of age.

was regarded at Constantinople as a weak-minded man, who allowed favorites to squander what remained of the treasures amassed by Mehemet Ali, and who was unable to collect the taxes from his own officers, so that the country was in a wretched condition.* At the same time a formidable insurrection broke out in Senaar, which had been subdued about twenty-five years ago, by the troops of Mehemet. The Pacha of the province, and the Egyptian troops, were massacred. In these circumstances, the Porte intimated to Abbas, that the following changes should be made in the government of Egypt:

- 1st. Reduction of the land tax to a third of its present amount;
- 2d. Reduction of the standing army of Egypt to 20,000 men;
- 3d. The total disarmament of the fleet, or rather the placing it at the sole disposition of the Porte;
- 4th. The constant residence of the Inspector-General, Mahomed Ali Pacha, in Egypt;
- 5th. The regulation of the income of the Egyptian princes according to a fixed scale.

Abbas refused to comply with these demands, but proceeded to levy more troops and to increase his naval forces, with a view to resist such demands by force, if necessary. But he soon found that such a course was by no means advisable; and, therefore, he ordered Kiani Pacha, his envoy at Constantinople, to represent him as a most loyal subject, ready to obey the Sultan's commands, and to express a hope that the reforms in question would not be insisted on, as they would endanger the security of the country. The Sultan accordingly receded from his original demands; and the difficulty was settled on the basis of administrative and financial reforms only, such as had been made in Turkey.

In accordance with the above-mentioned agreement, the Viceroy and his Council engaged in forming a constitution for the government of Egypt, similar to that recently adopted at Constantinople, and the several consuls were called upon to give their advice. But these deliberations led to no practicable result at that time.

* An American gentleman thus wrote from Cairo at the time: "The present Viceroy, **ABBAS PACHA**, has a bad reputation at Constantinople, but I have had two long and free interviews with him, and am greatly mistaken if he is not very far from being the knave or fool that he has been represented to be. What the condition of the interior of Egypt may be I do not know, but Cairo is as far before Constantinople in all the appliances of civilized life, as Washington is before Cairo. Since the departure of **ARTIM BEX**, a wily and corrupt Armenian, who was agent for foreign affairs, and who had led Abbas Pacha into many follies, the Viceroy has become very popular among the Franks; and if he can bear up against the intrigues of his enemies at Constantinople, will, I believe, make as good a governor as such people as he rules over can bear."

GREECE.

In the early part of 1851, the kingdom was infested by bands of daring robbers, by whom many persons were killed, and several villages destroyed. The whole number of robbers in this small State was estimated at 1,000. They were particularly active in Livadia, and the sub-prefect of that district issued a circular to all the mayors, recommending the utmost vigilance to be observed in watching the movements of the brigands.

That the government was to blame for this increase of crime is evident from the following occurrence: A noted brigand named Cavourino, had been arrested and tried. It was proved that he had been guilty of sixty-five acts of robbery, and seventy murders; and he was accordingly sentenced to death. But as he had money, he purchased a royal pardon from the minister of justice. This flagrant abuse of power occasioned a violent attack upon the government, from the members of the legislature, who declared that it was in consequence of the protection given by the authorities to persons found guilty of crimes, that robbery was so prevalent in Greece.

In Acarnania, a band of fifty robbers had given battle to an armed force under the mayor, and the latter was killed, with five of his guards, while the banditti lost but one man. Afterwards the village of Velizza, in the district of Atalanta, was pillaged by a powerful banditti, under a notorious leader named Calamava. Houses were burned, and several men and women murdered in a horrible manner. Among the women killed was the sister of a distinguished merchant of Athens.

The village of Melessina, in Locrida, was pillaged in open day, by a large gang of robbers, who put the few soldiers in the place to flight, killing one and wounding several. Similar scenes occurred in Eubœa, Livadia, Bœotia, and Attica.

Dr. Jonas King, the American missionary at Athens, was occasionally hindered in his labors there, in a manner not very creditable to the inhabitants. On Sunday, while he was preaching, a man suddenly interrupted him, and expressed a wish to ask him various questions. Dr. King replied, that if the questions referred immediately to the subject on which he was then speaking, he would answer them immediately; but that if such was not the case, he would defer the discussion to another day. On this the interpreter demanded an immediate solution: some of the persons present supported him, while others opposed him; and such a terrific noise ensued, that Dr. King, thinking himself in danger, left the pulpit, protesting against the violence used against him, and hoisted the American flag on his house. The crowd then

left, muttering loud murmurs, but without committing any act of hostility.

Early in the year, the Austrian Minister addressed a note to the Greek government, complaining of the protection which Greece afforded to Italian exiles, and that they transformed the country into a focus of revolution, striking medals with the effigies of the most prominent men in the late struggles, and thus exciting the sympathies of the Greeks. He concluded with declaring that the more interest the Greek nation took in those refugees, the more severity would be displayed by the Austrian government towards its subjects. This note, however, had little or no influence on the policy of the Greek government; and it is not probable that any such representations from the same quarter ever will. France, Russia and Britain, are the only countries exercising much influence in the affairs of Greece.

During the absence of King Otho in Germany, there were various rumors current in Greece, to the effect that he meant to abdicate, and leave the country permanently. But these turned out to be groundless; and Otho landed at the Piraeus, from a steamer, on the 15th of May, when he resumed the government, which had been administered by the Queen, as regent, during his absence. While he was in Bavaria, the question of his successor was settled, by his next brother, Prince Luitpold, resigning his claims in favor of his youngest brother, Prince Adalbert, now twenty-three years of age. Adalbert was declared heir to the throne, and agreed to marry and remove to Greece. He was also to have his children baptized according to the rites of the Greek church; and if he had a son who should be of age when the throne becomes vacant, he was to resign his claims in his favor. If he should himself succeed to the crown, he promised to adopt the Greek religion, whenever that event might occur.

The Legislative Chambers were dissolved on the 24th of March, in consequence of the Ministry having been defeated during the discussion of a new electoral law. During the subsequent elections, various complaints were made regarding the arbitrary and unconstitutional interference of the government. In several instances the Council of Ministers fixed the number of representatives to be elected, without any regard to the principles laid down by the constitution. In the case of the election of Pylos, the government seemed to try to what extent it could carry its contempt for the rights of the legislature. In three of the communes of that province, a committee had been appointed for the ostensible purpose of scrutinizing the votes. The most extraordinary irregularities were proved, and, among others, that while false votes in favor of the ministerial candidates were thrown

into the urns, 118 bulletins, given in favor of the opposition candidates, were abstracted. The bureau of the Chamber appointed to examine the election resolved unanimously that it should be annulled; but the Ministry determined otherwise, and, contrary to all precedent, ordered that the members returned should be allowed to take their seats. The Chamber of Deputies submitted without the slightest opposition.

These facts indicate that the Greeks have not recovered from the effects of two thousand years of ignorance and oppression. Their long struggle with the Turks, also, fostered lawless habits. It may fall to our lot hereafter to describe an improved state of society in Greece, both public and private: but it will take a long while to raise the Greeks to a level with some other European communities.

AFRICA.

The Kaffir war waged by the aborigines of Southern Africa against the Cape Colony, was not terminated in 1851. As all the accounts of this protracted and bloody contest were derived from one side, it was not very easy, at this distance, to obtain a clear and reliable knowledge of its real causes. The colonists complained of aggressions, thefts and murders, committed by the aborigines; and it is easy to believe that the latter could relate grievous wrongs sustained from the British. One remarkable fact seems to sustain that belief, viz.: that the Kat River Hottentots, and many other natives, who had been considered quite civilized, and had made professions of Christianity, joined the insurgents. "It is an occurrence," observes Sir Harry Smith, "unprecedented, I believe, in the history of the world, that a mass of civilized men, the greater part born in the Christian faith, and the remainder converted and improving Christians, for years assembled in societies and villages under excellent clergymen, should suddenly, and without any cause whatever, rush back into barbarism and savage life." But the cause of this "unprecedented" occurrence will perhaps be found in the aggressions and wrongs inflicted on the natives by the colonists. Men situated as the latter were, have been generally regardless of the rights of those whom they were superseding; and the latter would, in their turn, resort to every means that they could devise, both justifiable and unjustifiable, to defend what they considered their rights, and expel their adversaries. We gather from the various accounts received from the Cape Colony, that the case there was precisely the same. Many of the settlers are unprincipled men, who claim as their right to exact from the natives whatever their selfish desires may suggest; and the natives are by no means scrupulous in regard to

the property or the lives of the colonists, when either happen to fall within their power.

Frequent mutual wrongs, proceeding from the causes just mentioned, and continued during a series of years, had produced strong feelings of mutual hostility in the two parties. The natives saw the colonists gradually intruding, without any right or justification, on their ancient pasture grounds; and the treatment they had received from the latter, from time to time, had prejudiced them against receiving from that source any lessons regarding tillage, and a more economical means of acquiring a subsistence. Military villages were established within the Kaffir territory; and the chiefs were alternately coaxed, slighted, and bullied. In these circumstances, Sir Harry Smith abruptly deposed Sandilli, the principal chief of the Gaikas, and installed an Englishman in his stead. Three days afterwards, he revoked this arrangement, as he found, what might have been easily foreseen, that it was likely to produce a storm. The first step excited the anger of the natives; and the second led them to conclude that he feared them, and that consequently they might attack him with success. Sandilli, the deposed chief, at once prepared for war, and was eagerly joined by many of the surrounding chiefs.

On the 3d of January, the Kaffirs attacked Fort White with a strong force; but they were dispersed by the guns of the fort, with a loss of about twenty killed. On the morning of the 7th, Hermanus, a leading insurgent chief, with a numerous band of Kaffirs and Hottentots, who had joined him, attacked Fort Beaufort. The assault was repulsed; Hermanus, his son, and several of his followers were killed, and the whole party completely routed. Notwithstanding these losses, about 3,000 Kaffirs and Hottentots, supported by a body of native cavalry, attacked the colonists and their native allies at Fort Hare and Alice Town, on the 21st of January; but they were defeated with great slaughter. Among the killed was a native chief named Manana. The Fingoes fought on the side of the colonists with great bravery, and sustained the brunt of the attack. The Kaffirs, however, succeeded, during the contest, in seizing and driving away 200 head of cattle. Next day the government troops repulsed a body of insurgents in a smart action, near King William's Town.

The governor now issued a proclamation, declaring the territory of the insurgents forfeited, and that the people of Hermanus should be forever expelled from the colony. It was further declared that, as the war had been commenced by the Kaffirs, without any justifiable cause, hostilities must be continued against them till they are entirely expelled. There was also a reward of £500 offered for the apprehension of Sandilli; but it produced no effect.

The preceding battles seem to have produced no permanent impression on the insurgents: for immediately afterwards they blockaded Forts White and Cox, so that no communication could be held with the troops stationed there. But they were relieved on the last days in January, by a column of about 2,000 men under Col. Mackinnon, who furnished them with supplies for six weeks.

The colonists, in a great measure, stood aloof from the contest, declaring that it was a government, and not a colonial war. They said that, as the government would not allow them to protect themselves, it was bound to prosecute the war at its own cost. The attempts of the government to make the colony a penal settlement had excited a strong feeling of discontent among them; and the attempts were energetically resisted.

Although the insurgents were generally defeated in regular encounters with the troops, yet they showed much skill and cunning in their operations; and by attacking small parties, and cutting off supplies, they greatly harrassed their adversaries.

About this time the natives got possession of Fort Armstrong, from which they expelled those who held it. But a strong force, under the command of Major General Somerset, marched against them on the 22d of February. At some distance from the fort, and about daybreak, a part of this force surprised a body of Kaffirs and Hottentots, who immediately retired; but being joined by a number of insurgents from the fort, they attacked the troops with vigor. They were at length repulsed, and driven back into the fort. General Somerset now united all his forces, and attacked the fort. In about two hours it was carried, sacked, and burnt down. But the resistance made by the insurgents was so desperate, that the tower belonging to the fort had to be destroyed by shells, as the men in it would not surrender, and the troops could not take it. A considerable number of the insurgents were killed, and nearly 600 made prisoners, two-thirds of whom, however, were women and children.

At this time the missionary settlements suffered severely, and that at Shiloh was burnt by the insurgents. They also ravaged the settlements wherever they could, and many skirmishes were fought between them and detachments of troops along the frontiers. The losses of the colonists were very heavy; and the policy pursued towards the natives by Sir Harry Smith, tended to incite them to greater ravages. He acted avowedly on the principle of starving them into submission, by destroying the crops and wasting the country. The same course was adopted by the insurgents.

The Governor denounced some of the persons connected with the missionary establishment at Shiloh, as aiders and abettors of

the insurrection. But it is most probably the truth, that the missionaries did not approve of his course towards the natives, or assist him in the work of extermination as he wished. We cannot find that any fact whatever came to light, which would in the least warrant the denunciation, except that the insurgents frequently spared the mission settlements, while they plundered those of the colonists. During a foray against the native villages in the Chumie valley, the troops found one of the missionaries quietly settled there; and he would receive no escort from the place. But such facts are easily explained by supposing that the insurgents could discriminate between the missionaries who instructed them, and never wronged them, and men whose letters and proclamations prove them to have been influenced by a spirit of cruelty and contempt towards the natives, and to have acted in accordance with such feelings.

About the same time that Fort Armstrong was destroyed, a colonial force of about 120 men was suddenly attacked by the insurgents among the Wittebergen, or White Mountains, when more than thirty of them were killed, and many wounded. A few days afterwards, a strong force under Colonels Mackinnon and Eyre, with the assistance of a body of Fingoes, captured upwards of 1,600 head of cattle near Fort Peddie, and devastated the country. Various encounters took place about the same time in that neighborhood, and also around King William's Town, in which a great number of the insurgents were killed.

In March, a powerful chief, named Krelli, joined the insurgents; and his example was followed by several others of less note. This encouraged them very much; and the war appeared to be only beginning, although it had been repeatedly stated from high quarters, that it might be considered at an end. During this month, several engagements occurred, but they produced no decided results on either side. Many of the insurgents were killed, and a considerable number of cattle taken; but the insurrection appeared no nearer its termination than before. In a skirmish, on the 16th of April, an officer of the 73d regiment, named Fletcher, was killed, his body being pierced with twenty assegays or lances. In May, winter set in, and the condition of the colony was by no means flattering. The Governor was shut up in King William's Town, surrounded on all sides by hordes of natives, whom the cold and snow had driven into the low grounds; and they infested the whole country down to the coast. About the end of this month, Col. Mackinnon attacked a strong body of Kaffirs in the Agabola Mountains, when a severe conflict ensued, in which the insurgents were defeated, with a loss of about 250 men killed.

CHRONICLE

OF INDEPENDENT EVENTS AND REMARKABLE OCCURRENCES.

JANUARY, 1851.

1st. *The New-York Homestead Exemption Law.*—This law went into operation this day. It exempts from sale on execution for debts hereafter contracted, the lot and buildings thereon, occupied as a residence owned by the debtor, being a householder and having a family, to the value of \$1000.

Iowa Code.—Four commissioners appointed to revise the laws of Iowa and report a new code, have, after three years spent in their labors, reported a code of laws to the Legislature of that State. It makes many decided changes.

3rd. *A dead whale*, 70 feet long, was found on Barnstable Beach, Mass., supposed to have been driven there by one of the late storms.

Woman's Rights.—A curious trial was recently held at Middlesex Sessions, in England. Thomas Saverland, the prosecutor, stated that he was in the tap-room where the defendant, Caroline Newton, and her sister, who had come from Birmingham, were present. The latter jokingly observed that she had promised her sweetheart that no man should kiss her while absent. It being holiday time, Saverland considered this a challenge, and caught hold of her and kissed her. The young woman took it as a joke, but her sister, the defendant, said she would like as little of that kind of fun as he pleased. Saverland told her if she was angry, he would kiss her also; he then tried to do it, and they fell to the ground. On rising, the woman struck him; he again tried to kiss her, and, in the scuffle, she bit off his nose, which she spit out of her mouth. The action was brought to recover damages for the loss of the nose. The defendant said he had no business to kiss her; if she wanted kissing, she had a husband to kiss her, a bet-

ter-looking man than ever the prosecutor was. The jury, without hesitation, acquitted her; and the chairman said, that if any man attempted to kiss a woman against her will, she had a RIGHT to bite off his nose, if she had a fancy for so doing!

Heavy Storm and Severe Cold.—At Ticonderoga, N. Y., snow fell about this time to the depth of 40 inches, the greatest fall for 40 years. This was soon followed by another, making 4 feet on a level, besides immense drifts. The thermometer stood at 17° below zero, and near Hanover, N. H., at 30° below zero. All Vermont was filled with snow, so that business was greatly injured.

4th. India Mission Destroyed.—The entire premises of the American Baptist Mission at Bangkok Siam, was destroyed by fire. The fire originated in a native house, a few rods distant from the mission, and spread with such rapidity that very few articles could be saved. The mission printing office and stock, the bindery and type-foundry, the libraries, and nearly all the personal effects of the missionaries, were consumed, together with the greater part of the second edition of the New Testament, which had just been issued, and it would be difficult to procure copies enough to conduct the ordinary Sabbath worship.

The total loss is not less than \$10,000, and probably will amount to a sum considerably larger. The missionaries were received into the residence of Senor Marcellino de Oranjo Rosa, the Portuguese Consul, and met with much attention and kindness from others.

8th. Fugitive Slave Case at New-York.—Henry Long, claimed as a fugitive slave from Virginia, was remanded to his master's service, under the late act of Congress, after a trial of thirteen days before Judge Betts, of the U. S. District Court.

9th. The Oldest Woman in the World, was living at Gateshead, England. Her name is Mary Benton. She was born, Feb. 12, 1731, and if she lives till the census is taken, she will be entered as 120 years old. She walks erect, hears well, uses no spectacles, and so late as 1848 assisted at haymaking at Elton.

15th. Fearful Accident.—A row of six large new buildings on Twenty-First Street, N.Y., fell to the ground, in consequence of their being built of defective materials. Forty workmen were employed in finishing the buildings when the accident occurred, of whom six were killed, and many severely injured. Accidents of this kind are of frequent occurrence in New-York, U. S.

17th. Mummies Unrolled.—Two Egyptian mummies were unrolled at the Chinese Museum, Philadelphia, by Mr. Gliddon, as-

sisted by Drs. H. S. Patterson, Grant, and Gilbert. On one was found a copy of the Book of the Dead, written on papyrus, in the hieratic character; and a scarabæus, or sacred beetle, was, as usual, found, on the breast. The body was found perfectly preserved. The other was the body of a child.

Phosphate of Lime.—About twelve miles from Dover, N. J. near one of the richest zinc mines in the world, has been discovered one of the very few mines of phosphate of lime in a mass anywhere known. The vein extends two miles in length, and, about six feet wide. A specimen was analyzed by Dr. Antisell, of New-York, who found it to contain 93 per cent. of pure phosphate.

Mariposa Indians, Cal.—Col. A. Johnson, Indian Agent, returns to San José, from a visit among these Indians, and gives the following account of them:—

“They are very numerous, numbering from 8,000 to 12,000 warriors, scattered over an area of 60 miles square. They are also, to an alarming extent, furnished with fire-arms, incautiously sold them by the Americans on former occasions, and which they know how to use with terrible certainty. They are also able-bodied men, unlike the dwarfish ‘Diggers,’ and more akin to the stalwart and princely race of the Shoshones or Utahs. They enter upon the war with the ‘pale faces,’ on the most deliberate grounds imaginable, although, with fatal presumption and ignorance of their power. They desire them to leave their game and hunting grounds, and to do it without parley and without delay. They say that ‘they want to walk there,’ and that they wish no deliberations about it. They say, too, that they cannot wait to send to the ‘Great Father’ at Washington for him to have a hearing of their grievances: that, if they do, meantime all their acorn-trees, and pleasant groves, will be cut down and burned up; and that all the game will be killed. They are composed of several tribes, from the Chowchillas and the country beyond, of which the Four Creeks is the centre, and thence extending along towards the upper water of the Colorado. They have at present in possession, the whole region about the Fine and Coarse Gold Gulches, and from that on to the neighborhood of the Mariposa and the Agua Fria.”

18th. *Destructive Fire.*—A great conflagration occurred at New-Orleans, which destroyed the St. Charles Hotel, one of the largest in the United States, besides two churches and various other buildings. The loss exceeded \$500,000.

22d. *Steamer Atlantic.*—The U. S. Mail Steamer Atlantic, ar-

rived safely at Cork, having broken her main shaft at sea, in a passage from Liverpool to New-York, and been obliged to put back after she had approached the coast of America. It was generally thought in the United States that she was lost; and the news of her safety was received with great joy.

25th. *Destruction of Gorgona.*—A great fire broke out at Gorgona, on the Isthmus of Panama, which destroyed most of the town.

26th. *Earthquake.*—An earthquake was felt at Guerrero, in Mexico, accompanied by a luminous meteor of immense size, which fell on a neighboring mountain, with a loud explosion.

27th. *Loss of the John Adams.*—This steamer struck a snag in the Mississippi, near Greenville, while on her passage from New-Orleans to Cincinnati. The cabins parted from the hull, and of 200 persons on board, 123 were lost.

31st. *Execution of Dunbar the Murderer.*—Reuben Dunbar was executed at Albany, for the murder of David and Stephen Lester, in October, 1850, as mentioned in our fifth volume. He made a full confession of his crimes.

Earthquake.—A very severe shock of an earthquake was felt at Hawaii, in the Sandwich Islands; and all the vessels in the port of Lahaina were obliged to put to sea.

During this month a new communication was opened between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, by means of the river San Juan and the lakes Nicaragua and Leon; and the first steamer plied on these lakes. The town of Bamboo, in China, containing 300 houses, was entirely burned down.

FEBRUARY.

2nd. *Earthquake.*—A severe shock of an earthquake occurred at Carthagena, in New-Grenada; several buildings were destroyed, and a number of lives lost.

Loss of the Donna Maria II.—News arrives of the loss of the Portuguese frigate Donna Maria II., in the harbor of Macao, on the 29th of October last. She was accidentally blown up, while the crew were celebrating the birthday of the King Consort of Portugal. She was a strong vessel of 32 guns, built of teak, and about forty years old. Of a crew of 225 men, 188 perished. It is supposed that fire was purposely applied at the magazine.

5th. *Awful Accidents on the Clyde.*—Twenty-four lives are lost on the Clyde, by the explosion of the steamer Plover, at Glasgow;

a collision between the steamer *Thistle* and the brig *Laurel* from Demerara, in the Frith of Clyde, and a collision, on the same night, between the steamer *Vanguard* and a schooner, off Corsewall Point. The *Laurel* sunk; and all her crew, about 14 in number, perished.

6th. *Great Fire in Australia.*—An awful conflagration visited the neighborhood of Geelong, which was more disastrous in its consequences than any that had ever occurred in the colony. The crops, stacks, live-stock, and homesteads belonging to upwards of thirty farmers were reduced to ashes; but the aggregate amount of the losses sustained has not been ascertained. The loss of life was frightful. Among others the wife and four children of a settler named McLelland, residing on the banks of the Diamond Creek, one of the tributaries of the River Plenty, had been burned to death; and eight persons in the Geelong district suffered in like manner.

9th. *Collision on the Mississippi.*—The steamer *Autocrat*, on her passage from New-Orleans to Memphis, came in collision with the steamer *Magnolia*, and was lost. About thirty persons perished on board.

15th. *Fugitive Slave Case.*—Shadrach Wilkins claimed as a fugitive slave, on behalf of John de Bree, Purser in the U. S. Navy, was arrested at Boston. But he was subsequently rescued by a crowd, who broke into the court-room, and overpowered the officers who had him in custody. Shadrach escaped to Canada. The case caused much excitement.

18th. *Great Mineral Discoveries.*—News arrives from California of the discovery of very rich gold mines near the mouth of the Klamath river. The richest portion of the deposit is confined to a beach about two miles in length, consisting of black and gray sand. The gold is mixed with the former in proportions varying from ten cents to ten dollars the pound.

About the same time an immense deposit of *carbonate of magnesia* was discovered on Pitch River, the principal tributary of the Sacramento. Much of it is perfectly white, while some is more or less discolored with iron, as if a painter had been striving to give effect by a coloring of light and shade. Large masses are easily detached, which, rolling down into the river that washed its base, floated off as light and buoyant as a cork, until it became saturated with water. A thousand wagons could be loaded in a very short time, and there is enough to supply the whole world. For three days' travel below, the soil seems to be impregnated with it, and the banks of the river are formed of it.

Soon after, an extensive deposit of phosphate of lime was discovered at Crown Point, on the north shore of Lake Champlain. It is said that 92 per cent. only of the rock is phosphate, but even this amount will render it a valuable acquisition for the farmer's field.

19th. *Great Tempest.*—A terrific storm occurred at Shreveport, near New-Orleans. Rain fell in torrents; many houses were unroofed, and others blown down. The tin on one house was torn off, rolled up like a rag, and thrown over several adjacent houses into a yard. The steamer Caddo, which lay at the landing, was driven out into the river; the wind snatched up some chairs which happened to be outside the cabin, and after whirling them about in the air for some time, dropped them into the river. Strange to say, no one sustained any personal injury.

Eruption of Kilauea.—The volcano of Kilauea, the great crater of Mouna Kea, on the island of Hawaii, had a great eruption, which continued for some time with unusual activity.

24th. *Violent Tornadoes.*—The town of Fayetteville, Tenn., was nearly destroyed by a terrific whirlwind. Many persons were severely injured, and some lives were lost.

About the same time Pittsburg was visited by a severe tornado, which threw down several buildings and caused the loss of some vessels.

25th. *Cherokee Educational Association.*—The first semi-annual meeting of the above association was held in the territory of the nation. Various able addresses were made on the subject of education, especially primary education. A committee was appointed to draft a memorial to the National Council, praying for a law to secure the employment of none but teachers of the best moral character; and they recommended that all schools should be opened by reading the Scriptures.

28th. *Earthquake in Asia Minor.*—A destructive earthquake occurred in Anatolia and the adjacent islands. At Makoi several houses fell; and bituminous vapors escaped from fissures opened in the streets. The neighboring town of Levissy, containing 1500 houses, was entirely destroyed, and about six hundred of its inhabitants perished. Several springs were dried up, and new ones formed. At Rhodes, the upper part of the castle fell with a great crash.

Destruction of a Pirate Settlement.—A Spanish expedition from the Manillas attacked the pirate settlement of Suloo, east of Borneo. The shores, forts, and houses were crowded with natives eager to

begin the fray, and three of them were so impetuous as to rush on the first column of troops; two of them were shot, while the third threw himself upon a sergeant, whom he slew with a lance.

The first drawing of Spanish blood heated the imagination of the troops, and the assailant fell amid a shower of balls. Save this incident, the troops marched on regardless of the fire of the enemy; their advance in regular order, notwithstanding the harrowing influence of the guns, astonished the Suloos. In the meantime three steamers and a brig-of-war opened a brisk and effective fire on the fortresses, doing much execution; the corvettes anchored on the right, and discharged bombs and grenades in those parts of the town where masses of natives were seen.

The fire directed to the left ceased about mid-day; this division was under the personal command of the Governor General, who made an assault upon Fort Daniel, regarded by the Suloos as the strongest in the place. On the right, the firing was kept up until half-past one. In advancing to the assault of Fort Daniel, the troops bared their breasts and pressed on.

The fire from the forts was incessant and tremendous, and the resistance offered extremely desperate; every inch of ground was disputed amidst cries of "*Vive la Reina*" on the one hand, and the war-yell on the other. All their hope of security lay on Fort Daniel; here the fight was maintained, the slaughter fearful, each in succession possessing themselves of the place; but eventually the Suloos were expelled. The Spanish flag was hoisted on the fortress by Father Pascual Ibanez, a priest of the order of Recoletos, who paid for his daring by being slain. The assailants on the right had but little to overcome; the Sultan's and other forts in that direction had been abandoned. The Sultan, in escaping from his fort, accompanied by his Datoos and a large force of Suloos, encountered the right division, which appears to have been panic-struck. At all events, the officers and two colonels were immediately after battle placed in arrest. Had these officers acted with decision, the Sultan must have been either slain or made captive, and his escape naturally vexed the intrepid Governor General. The left division suffered a loss of 33 killed and 84 wounded, while the loss of the other division was a single man.

The defenders of Fort Daniel fought to the last—every one of them perished. The whole of the forts and part of the town were destroyed on the same night; the captured artillery, consisting of 130 pieces of ordnance and a quantity of amunition, were embarked. The number of the defenders slain could not be ascertained, but must have been considerable. The expedition then sailed for Zamboanga, leaving the Spanish flag floating over the ruins of the deserted city of Suloo.

Suloo is subject to a powerful Sultan, who is also sovereign of a considerable portion of Borneo. He and his predecessors have long been noted for their atrocities; and their piratical junks have been the terror of merchant vessels in those seas for centuries. The artillery found in the forts was of English manufacture, and had been taken by the Suloos when they treacherously seized the settlement on the island of Balambangan in 1773, and murdered the garrison. The island had been ceded to the English ten years previously, by the Sultan of Suloo, as a reward for being re-established on his throne, when he had been taken prisoner by the Spaniards, and the English had found him as a captive when they occupied the fortress of Manilla.

This month the legislature of California attempted to elect a United States senator in place of Mr. Fremont, but after 142 unsuccessful ballotings, they postponed further action till the 1st of January, 1852.

The Crystal Palace, erected in Hyde-Park, London, for the exhibition of the industrial productions of all nations, was completed, and made over to the royal Commissioners appointed to take charge of it.

MARCH.

2nd. Suicide.—William H. Thompson, generally known as "One-eyed Thompson," committed suicide by taking acetate of morphine, while imprisoned at New York, under a charge of passing counterfeit money. He left a letter addressed to the coroner, in which he says: "There is nothing extraordinary in my end. From my boyish days, so far back as my memory serves, I have had a disposition to commit suicide. Surrounded by a mystery above my comprehension, and one that no theory, promulgated by others, appeared, to me, to be a solution of it, I have desired death as either the means of a better comprehension, or of a state of eternal quiet. For a long time I have lived only for others, those that I could not but love, and was bound to protect."

Fatal Explosion.—The steamer Oregon, on her passage from Louisville to New-Orleans, burst her boiler, at Island No. 82. Twenty-one persons were killed, and about twenty severely injured.

3rd. Amazons Defeated.—An army, partly composed of female warriors, under the king of Dahomy, attacked Abbeokuta, a town in the Bight of Benin, belonging to the Egbas. They were defeated, and about 1200 of their number killed. The attack was totally without provocation, and designed solely to procure prisoners for slaves.

Extensive Counterfeiting.—A large quantity of counterfeiting implements, and about \$200,000 of counterfeit money, were seized near Hillsboro', in Jefferson county, Missouri, by a police officer. They were found in a small cabin, near the dwelling-house of J. T. S. Moore, the counterfeiter, who had gone to California. He alleged that he built this cabin for the convenience of his negroes and working-men. His residence was sold, under execution, during his absence, and enough was found on the premises to lead to the conclusion that he might have left behind all his counterfeiting instruments. The officer, Capt. Cozzens, observed that the floor was covered with a greater quantity of earth and filth than could have got there by natural accumulation. He tore up two or three planks, and, afterward, could readily perceive that the earth under the floor had, in several places, been disturbed. With the aid of spades and pick-axes, three boxes, lying at short distances apart, and about two feet from the surface of the ground, were brought out. They had been carefully and securely nailed, and, on examination, were found to be well coated, internally, with tar—a preservative, evidently, for their contents. There were found in the three boxes, the whole apparatus used in counterfeiting the Missouri fifties and other bills. The apparatus includes a splendid copper printing press, numerous engraving instruments, plates, magnifying glasses, vices, ink, rolls of bill paper, diamonds (such as are used by glaziers), and very many fine saws for cutting iron.

The press, and, indeed, all the instruments were made of the finest materials, and elegantly finished. The plates, with engravings, were not found. The following bills, the majority of which were filled and ready for circulation, were recovered:—

\$50	State Bank of Missouri, (all filled)	\$25,000
500	Treasury notes, partly unfinished	41,000
100	“ “ “ “	12,400
		<hr/>
		\$78,400

Besides these, there were bills on many banks that were in a very mutilated condition, swelling the amount of spurious currency to, at least, \$200,000.

Moore, the only person, so far, to whom suspicion attached, had resided here one entire year before he left for California. Ostensibly he was a farmer, who prospered in his honest devotion to agricultural pursuits, and he bore an excellent character among his neighbors.

4th. Lynching in California.—Frederick J. Roe, a gambler of San Francisco, shot Charles H. Myers for interfering in an affray,

and was incarcerated for trial; but the people dragged him from the jail, in despite of the police, and hanged him on a scaffold.

Loss of an East India Ship by Fire.—The Buckinghamshire sailed from Calcutta for Europe, on the 1st of March, under the charge of Capt. Macgregor, with about 200 persons on board. When she had left the Hooghly, a fire was discovered in the fore-hold, about ten at night, supposed to have originated spontaneously. Energetic steps were taken to suppress it, and many tons of water were thrown on the burning cargo, but all in vain. The vessel was out of sight of land, and the night very dark. The captain determined to run her ashore as the only means of saving the lives of those on board. In about an hour she grounded in such a position that those who could swim might reach the shore. About this time a steamer, which had heard the signal guns fired, came alongside, guided by the strong light of the conflagration. Many of those on board were invalids, and five of these leaped into the sea, when the vessel struck, and were drowned. The rest were all saved, notwithstanding the terror and confusion on board, and the wide spread of the fire.

8th. Great Arrest of Gamblers.—Mr. Tukey, Marshal of Boston, made a descent on several gambling houses in that city, and arrested 86 persons, the arrests at the different houses having been made simultaneously. Two days after, they were all brought before the police court, and fined \$4 each, and half the costs. Most of the delinquents had the appearance of being mechanics or laboring men, but a few were recognized as being clerks in highly respectable houses. Some appeared mortified, but a majority of the number quite the reverse.

10th. Riot in Norway.—A great communist riot broke out at Drontheim in Norway; and upwards of three hundred of the rioters were arrested.

12th. Great Fire at Nevada.—A great fire occurred at the town of Nevada, Cal., and upwards of 200 houses were either burnt, or torn down to stop the further ravages of the fire. The value of the property lost exceeded \$1,000,000, including about \$100,000 in gold dust.

New Route to China.—A chest of tea arrived at New-York, from Shanghae, in China, in 69 days, by way of California and the Isthmus of Panama. It came, in 34 days, to San Francisco, across the Pacific, and thence, in 35 days, to New-York.

14th. Great Storm.—A severe tempest occurred in Sicily. Falling rocks dammed up the streams and caused great flooding

and devastation. One third of the town of Monte Maggiore was buried under masses of earth, which fell from the neighboring mountains.

Daring Robbery.—Mr. Henry M. Witter, a bank messenger, was at the depôt at Norwich, Conn., for the purpose of taking the steamboat train for Boston. He had with him a carpet bag containing about forty thousand dollars in bills upon the Thames, Merchants, Norwich and Quinnebaug banks, Connecticut, to bring to Boston. While lying upon the sofa in the ladies' room of the depôt, at about twenty minutes past one, no one else being present, a man entered the room and took a chair near him. A moment afterwards the stranger inquired the time of night, and as Mr. W. turned his head towards the window, the man drew a "billy" (a short iron weapon with a loaded head) and struck Mr. W., as he thinks, several times in the forehead, partially stunning him, and causing him to roll upon the floor. As soon as Mr. W. had recovered from the effects of the blow, he cried out "Murder," when a couple of Irishmen in the adjoining room, and others, came to his assistance. The robber, however, had in the interim made good his escape, taking with him the carpet bag and contents.

15th. Fatal Explosion.—A violent explosion of carburetted hydrogen took place near Paisley, Scotland, at the Victoria Coal Pit, which is 1050 feet deep, and out of 63 persons in the mine at the time, 61 perished.

17th. High Tide and Storm.—A great storm raged on the northeastern coast of the United States, accompanied by a heavy fall of snow and an unusually high tide. At Boston, vessels and goods stored in cellars were damaged to the amount of \$300,000; and in the lower parts of New-York, much loss was sustained in a similar way.

18th. Earthquake.—A severe shock of an earthquake was felt in the state of Costa Rica, Central America. In the towns of San José and Barba, several houses were destroyed.

20th. Indian Travellers.—Three young Indians of the Callapuah tribe, in California, arrived in New-York, on their return to their native country, under the guidance of Mr. James B. Crossman, after having travelled through several parts of the United States. They received a good English education at Westfield, Mass., and are described as fine intelligent-looking men. Their names are *Askinawah*, *Nicolasis* and *Mokishee*.

The Choctaw Nation.—The following interesting account of the

state of this nation is taken from *The Intelligencer*, a paper published at Doaksville in their territories.

The nation consists of the two united tribes of Choctaws and Chickasaws, of which the former number 23,000 and the latter 4700. The two tribes are much intermingled, all matters of government being conducted as if they were one tribe. Their annuities, however, and School Fund, are kept entirely distinct. They are nearly related to each other in language, manners and customs, and according to their traditions, sprung from a common origin.

They are becoming an agricultural people. Some of them have fine farms, and made from the crop of 1850, about 600 bales of cotton. Their attention, however, is principally directed to the culture of corn.

Their dwellings are principally log cabins, some of them large and spacious; and in the comforts of civilized life, they are making constant progress. Other improvements are in many respects similar to those of new settlements on the frontier countries.

They have a printed constitution and laws, the prominent features of which are modelled after those of our neighboring States. Each of the four districts into which the Nation is divided, has a Chief of its own, who is elected every four years.

Their Legislature, or General Council, as it is called, comprises a Senate and House of Representatives, which meet annually, on the first Wednesday in November, and continue in session from ten to fifteen days. The signatures of a majority of the Chiefs are necessary to give to each bill passed, the form of a law. Their Legislative proceedings are generally marked by a due regard to the improvement of the people in knowledge and morals, and are conducted with the strictest order and decorum.

They have a body of officers called Light Horsemen, under the appointment and subject to the directions of the Chiefs, and form what may be called the police of the Nation.

Discovery of a beautiful Cave.—About this time a party of hunters discovered a large and singularly beautiful cave near Manchester, in the state of Vermont. The cave is situated upon the southern extremity of Equinox Mountain, about half-way from the base to the summit. The entrance is by a gradual descent of about thirty feet, into a spacious apartment measuring thirty-six feet in length, twenty-seven feet in breadth, and thirteen feet in height, and having a bottom as level, and almost as smooth as a floor. From this room, a narrow passage leads into an apartment far exceeding the former, both in extent and magnificence, and in which were found three colossal pillars, twenty feet in height and fifteen feet in circumference, of spectral whiteness, and smooth as polished marble.

In the third room were found considerable quantities of iron

and lead, together with a kind of ore resembling silver. The explorations were continued until after passing through no less than nine apartments when the party found themselves upon the brink of a precipice. On throwing down a large stone, a faint splash was returned, after an interval of several seconds, from which was inferred the existence of a pond of water at the bottom of the abyss. The whole of the cavern, with the exception of this pond, was perfectly dry.

26th. *Fatal Collision*.—The steamer Lowell was sunk by coming in collision with the Vinton on the Ohio, about fifteen miles below Wheeling. Twelve of the passengers and three of the crew were drowned.

27th. *Destructive Explosions*.—A steam boiler exploded in the cotton factory of Henry Misland, at Stockport, England. It burnt down the mill, and killed 14 persons.

About the same time, three buildings were destroyed by the explosion of a steam boiler at Manchester. Nine persons were killed, and several severely wounded.

29th. *Village Destroyed*.—The village of Correra, in the Canton of Uri, in Switzerland, was destroyed by an avalanche; and 23 persons were killed.

30th. *Extensive Immigration*.—The packet ship Washington arrived at New York, from Liverpool, with 961 passengers, the largest number ever brought over the Atlantic by any vessel at one trip.

Piracy.—The Italian brig Clementina, was captured by Malay pirates near Diah, on the coast of Sumatra, and six of the crew were murdered. The brig was afterwards re-taken by the American ship Ariosto.

This month the town of Ioodia, in India, was destroyed by the explosion of a powder magazine, with immense loss of life.

A Rival of Professor Webster.—The Court of Assizes of the Haute Garonne, tried a man named Meda, for the murder of M. Guittou, a notary, of Saint-Sulpice-de-Lezat. On the 29th December last, the accused went several times to M. Guittou's office, and pressed him to accompany him to his house to draw up some deeds. M. Guittou at last went, but did not return home. The next day his family, being greatly alarmed, caused inquiries to be made, but they led to no result. Suspicion fell on the accused, and his house was examined. Traces of blood were found on different articles of dress, on an axe, on the walls, &c., and on the

walls also were some bits of hair, mixed with blood, which were ascertained to be those of the deceased.

When these things were discovered, the accused displayed great emotion. Bits of a peculiar description of soil were found on a wheelbarrow, and a person announced that, on the previous night, he had heard the noise of a barrow going in the direction of a field of that sort of soil. This field was accordingly examined, and in a pit the body of the deceased was discovered. Meda calmly exclaimed, on seeing the body produced, "It was not I who did the deed!" He was taken to prison, and after a while sent for his wife and admitted to her that he was the murderer. The poor woman shrieked and fainted.

To the examining magistrate he also admitted that he had put the deceased to death, and had thrown the body in the pit, but he labored to show that it was in a moment of passion and without premeditation. A multitude of minute circumstances, however, proved that the murder had been deliberately planned, and that he had long entertained bitter animosity against the deceased, to whom he was a debtor, and who had latterly pressed him for payment of his money. Declared guilty by the jury, the court condemned the man to death. He heard the sentence without any emotion. In the prison, however, he displayed profound discouragement, and took no food; and, when his wife or children were referred to, he wept most bitterly.

A Novel Suicide.—A determined act of suicide was committed at this time by a farmer, in the commune of Berge-le-Chatel (Saone-et-Loire.) After arranging all his affairs, and settling with his creditors, he harnessed two oxen to a cart, which he drove into a field to the foot of a tree. He then fastened one end of a rope to the tree, and after making a running noose in the centre of it, which he passed round his own neck, he tied the other end to the yoke of the oxen, and whipping them on he was immediately strangled.

APRIL.

1st. An Old Family.—A gentleman of Boston invited all his surviving brothers and sisters and their spouses to dine with him. All responded, except one brother and the husband of one sister. Seventeen attended, whose ages averaged 67 years. The eldest of the family was 81, and the youngest 56, the absent brother being 71. Six brothers and four sisters were present.

Dreadful Explosion.—A powder magazine exploded at Cologne. Twenty persons were killed, and twenty-six wounded.

2nd. *Violent Earthquake.*—The severest earthquake known since 1822, occurred at Valparaiso, in Chili, and the vicinity. It lasted for fifteen seconds. The houses rocked to and fro, like vessels at sea. Slighter shocks continued to be felt for several days. Upwards of two hundred houses were rendered uninhabitable; and the loss was estimated at \$1,000,000. But few lives were lost.

The motion of the earth was observed to be of less violence in some parts than others, not a hundred yards distant; so much so, that old and decayed houses stood the shock better in some parts than newly and strongly erected edifices; and those houses in the structure of which the most timber had been employed, remained almost sound.

On the 4th, at midnight, a heavy rain set in, which lasted uninterruptedly for twelve hours and cooled the atmosphere considerably, but destroyed still more property, pouring into the roofless houses, and compelling those who had taken refuge in the plaza, and were living in tents, to seek shelter.

St. Jago and other places suffered at the same time, but less severely.

3rd. *Explosion.*—The powder magazine at Temeswar, in Hungary, exploded, and twenty persons were killed. Most of the windows in the town were smashed; the doors were thrown open, and masses of masonry strewed the streets. The mangled limbs of some of those who were killed, were thrown nearly one mile from the spot.

4th. *Fugitive Slave Case.*—A fugitive slave named Thomas Sims was arrested at Boston, at the instance of Mr. James Potter, of Chatham Co., Georgia. Sims defended himself when arrested, and wounded one of the officers with a knife; but he was secured and taken to the Court House. As there was much excitement in the city, the fugitive was strongly guarded. An application was made to the Supreme Court for a writ of *habeas corpus*; but it was refused; and Sims was remanded to his claimant.

9th. *Loss of the Englishman.*—The British brig *Englishman* was capsized off the Island of Fernando Po, on the coast of Guinea, and all on board, thirty in number, were drowned.

10th. *New-York Common School Bill.*—The legislature of New-York pass a bill providing a State tax of \$800,000 per annum, in addition to \$300,000 arising from the school funds, to make the public schools throughout the State free.

15th to 17th.—*Destructive Storm.*—A violent gale from the east,

accompanied with heavy rain, raged on the Coast of New England. Houses were blown down, wharves overflowed, trees uprooted, and railroad embankments swept away. The light-house on Minot's Ledge, near Boston, was carried away, and the two assistant keepers drowned. Mr. Bennet, the principal keeper, was ashore at the time. The structure rested on nine piles of wrought iron, about 63 feet high, and from 5 to 10 inches in diameter. These were uprooted and carried away, the rock in which they were fastened to the depth of 6 feet having broken. The whole height of the light-house was 75 feet. At the same time the sea-wall at Deer's Island was carried away, and eight lives lost.

17th. *Defeat of the Erie Canal Enlargement Bill.*—Twelve members of the Senate of New York resigned their seats, and thus prevented the passage of a bill appropriating nine millions of dollars for the enlargement of the Erie Canal, as a sufficient number of members was not left to pass the bill after they withdrew. The legislature adjourned; and the governor of the State called an extra-session, to meet on the 10th of June.

18th. *Hail-Storm.*—A great hail-storm occurred at Dublin, Ireland. Upwards of £700 worth of glass was broken, and other property destroyed.

Loss of the Eagle.—The schooner Eagle, belonging to Yarmouth, in Nova Scotia, was wrecked on Truro Beach, near Provincetown, Mass., and all her crew and passengers, amounting to 17, were lost.

19th. *Extensive Arrest of Desperadoes.*—A number of men were arrested in Jackson County, Michigan, on a charge of setting fire to the depots of the Michigan Central Railroad Company, placing obstructions on the tracks, injuring the passengers, and destroying the Company's property generally. They were regularly organized under the leadership of one Fitch, who styled himself a Doctor, and had carried on their nefarious practices for a year or two. Their offences against the company arose from some of the gang not having received as much as they had anticipated for the land assigned to the company for the road, and because they were not paid the full value of cattle killed by the cars, when their own culpable negligence allowed the beasts to get on the track, although the company offered to pay half the loss.

So systematic had their work of destruction become, that the Railroad Company were induced to employ a couple of shrewd persons, whose duty it should be to travel along the line, and detect the offenders; but so well organized were the band, that for eighteen months they eluded the most persevering inquiries.

Some four weeks ago, however, one of the persons employed by the company obtained an inkling of the organization, and by adroit management succeeded in worming himself into the confidence of the initiated; but before they would trust him to any considerable extent, it was required as a proof of his allegiance, that he should fire the depot at Niles, on a certain night, provided it was not previously done by an individual from Detroit, who was to be sent on for that purpose. The night came, and to ward off suspicion or betrayal, as well as to secure the full confidence of the gang, the depot was fired—all necessary precautions, however, having been made to avert any serious damage to buildings.

The news that the depot at Niles had been set on fire, but unfortunately discovered in time to prevent its destruction, at once gave the new recruit the fullest confidence of the gang, and he was forthwith admitted to the most secret council of the leading desperadoes. Counterfeiting, horse stealing, incendiarism, burglary, robbery, and the smallest petty larceny, were the sworn objects of this monstrous organization. One of their designs was to blow up the track and cars by an ingeniously contrived torpedo, so arranged as to be fired by the locomotive, and explode while the passenger cars should be over it. The informant continued to act with them until he had procured the names of thirty or forty of the conspirators, and their places of residence, confined principally to Leona, Centre, Jackson, Michigan, and Detroit.

Before plans had been matured for their arrest, the notorious Joe Dows, who was one of their leading men, was taken from Detroit to Pittsburg, on a requisition of the Governor of Pennsylvania, and the immediate management of the gang then devolved upon a fellow calling himself O. D. Williams, a resident of the State of New York, but at that time in Detroit. Fitch always kept in the back ground.

Williams was to leave Detroit for Buffalo on Thursday night; and as his arrest at that time would be the signal for a general dispersion of his accomplices, it was determined to let him proceed, while an officer, furnished with the requisite papers, should accompany him, and make the arrest during the passage, thus giving time to perfect a capture of his companions in Michigan. That arrest was made by Wm. H. Goodnow, of the Custom-house, who was acting as U. S. Marshal, and Williams was brought back to Detroit on Saturday night, under the escort of that officer.

On his way up, Williams requested officer Goodnow to mail for him a letter at Detroit, as soon as he should get there. This, when

they got to the prison, Mr. Goodnow consented to do, but received a reply that it was not then necessary, as the gentleman to whom he had written had also become an inmate under the same roof. On Friday night, the time it had been agreed on to make the arrests in the interior, an extra train of cars was sent from Detroit with a large number of officers and assistants, engaged for the occasion; and such were the arrangements made and carried out, by leaving squads along the line, that at Leona, Michigan, Centre, and Jackson, thirty-three men were arrested, simultaneously, about day-break on Saturday morning, and brought in and lodged in jail on Saturday afternoon.

Among the prisoners arrested were three justices of the peace, five men called doctors, one judge, and four constables—the latter belonging to the township of Leona.

This township was the head-quarters of the gang, and the seat of most of their crimes. It contained a great many desperate characters, owing to its having been chosen as the seat and residence of a band of counterfeiters several years ago. These were afterwards joined by men of their own kind, several of whom had just escaped from States' prisons. As they now became numerous, and their real character was unknown to many of the respectable inhabitants of the township, several were appointed to public offices.

22d. Election of William L. McKenzie.—This gentleman, who figured so largely in the Canadian rebellion in 1837, and lived for a long time as an exile in New York, returned to Canada about two years ago; and he was elected at this time a member of the Provincial Parliament for the county of Haldimand, Canada West. This fact indicates a great change in the state of public opinion there, since McKenzie left the country.

Turkish Contributions to the World's Fair.—The Turkish frigate Teizi Baari arrived at Southampton with goods for the great Exhibition, seven wagon-loads of which were sent to London. One of the packages contained magnificent jewels. The frigate had on board M. Constantine Mussarus, Ambassador to England, accompanied by M. Vogorides, Councillor, and Zia Effendi, Secretary of Legation. In addition to these distinguished persons, there was a large number of Turkish noblemen and gentlemen. Some of these who were official functionaries had charge of the goods for the Exhibition, while others were individuals who had had permission to take this opportunity of visiting England, and making the tour of Europe. The arrival was greeted with great eclat.

MAY.

1st. The "World's Fair," or "Exhibition of the Industrial Productions of all Nations," was opened in the Crystal Palace, Hyde-Park, London, the royal family and great officers of state attending. (See History.)

Extraordinary Preservation.—Three young boys, one of them a son of ex-Sheriff Hollenbeck, a son of John I. Morrison, and another named Elf, all residing in Greenport, Columbia Co., N.Y., had procured a small skiff, and were out upon the Hudson a short distance above Catskill, for the purpose of catching eels. It appears that they were crossing the river to get to the Catskill dock, when the steamer Troy came down, and, it being dark, ran over the skiff. On hearing the cries of the boys in the water, the boat was stopped, when Hollenbeck and Elf were picked up and placed in another small boat near by, to be taken home. Search was made for Morrison for some time; but he could not be found. So he was given up for lost, and the boat proceeded on her course.

Next day a number of neighbors and friends of the boy were out fishing and dragging the river for his body, but without success, and the family mourned him as dead, when, to their inexpressible joy and surprise, about breakfast time on the day following, he bounded into the house alive and in perfect health. It appears from the boy's account that when the Troy was about moving off after the accident, he managed to get hold of one of the braces under the guards of the boat, to which he clung, his feet all the time dragging in the water, until the boat had gone some four miles, when he succeeded in attracting the attention of the passengers in the cabin, at whose solicitation the captain again stopped the boat. The situation of the boy having been ascertained, he was relieved from his perilous condition, taken to New York, and the next night sent up on board the Columbia.

Discovery of a Rich Lead Mine.—A very productive lead mine was recently discovered by Mr. Thomas Levins, near Dubuque, Iowa. The vault in which the ore is found, lies about 120 feet below the surface; its length is 160 feet, and its height varies from 10 to 70 feet. But experienced miners think that an incalculable amount of ore lies beyond this vault.

Stretching on from the eastern terminus of what is now visible of the cave, is a narrow passage which may be traced for thirteen hundred feet, and through the whole course of which are visible signs of the same rich deposit of mineral. The explorer wormed his way for about six hundred feet, and saw enough to gratify his curiosity. Twice the rocks open into somewhat capacious rooms;

neither of them of sufficient height to allow a man to stand erect, but both showing unequivocal evidences that the depths below are loaded with mineral treasure.

One of the openings, which he denominated a "bed-room," is about twenty-five by fifty feet, and the other, "the parlor," is some thirty-five by one hundred feet, and is highly ornamented, both with clusters of mineral from the wall, and beautiful stalactites of carbonate of lime from the roof.

3d. Terrible Conflagration at San Francisco, Cal.—A great fire broke out at San Francisco, and raged till the 5th. It destroyed upwards of 2000 buildings, including the Custom-House, and a great part of the business portion of the town. The loss is variously estimated at from one to five millions of dollars. Several persons were burnt to death, and others so severely injured that they died afterwards.

The officers of the customs saved the specie of their office (about \$1,000,000) by throwing it into a well. When first seen, the fire was but a slight blaze; but as the buildings in the immediate vicinity were all of wood and very combustible, the flames spread with astonishing rapidity. The fire spread to the shipping, and consumed a large number of vessels that were lying at the wharves. Many thousands lost their earthly all; and the city presented a most lamentable spectacle.

4th. Tornado at Raleigh, N. C.—A terrific storm passed over this place, and spread ruin and devastation in its course. It seems to have been confined within a belt of a hundred yards, or a little more, in width, and passing through the city from southwest to northeast, trampled every obstacle to its progress, within that compass, under foot, with the velocity of lightning and the power of an army of giants—uprooting the largest trees, and overthrowing chimneys and fences, unroofing the houses, and, in three instances, actually lifting houses themselves from their foundations and shivering them to the earth—besides doing, in other ways, considerable damage to property. Fortunately there was not a single instance of serious personal injury, and there were several remarkable escapes.

6th. Loss of the Kurrumany.—The native East India ship, Kurrumany, of Kedgere, laden with Coolies, for the Mauritius, was burnt while at anchor before Corocolly, and upwards of 200 lives were lost.

9th. Restoration of Thomas W. Dorr.—The Legislature of Rhode Island passed an act removing all the civil and political disabilities growing out of the sentence passed against Mr. Dorr for the

part he acted in 1842, and he was restored to all his rights. Salutes were fired, at Providence, next day, in honor of his restoration.

Discovery in Africa.—A Hungarian savant, M. GAYSA, who is now travelling in the interior of Western Africa, has sent a communication to the Imperial Society of Vienna, containing information of great interest. He has found, among the Kommenis, a small tribe tributary to the kingdom of Wooli, in Senegambia, traces of James Compagnon, a French traveller, charged by M. de Choiseul, toward the middle of the last century, with a voyage of exploration into the interior of Africa, who disappeared in 1760, and was not afterwards heard from.

Wishing to complete the discoveries which had been made by his brother some years before, Compagnon left Senegal towards the end of the year 1758, and, after visiting all the tribes to the northward and eastward of Senegambia, he penetrated as far as the desert of Simboni. Nothing was heard of him after March, 1760, and all the researches of the Government of the French post of St. Louis proved utterly fruitless.

The Kommenis are a partially civilized people. They have notions of religion which resemble Christianity, and are not entirely ignorant of the arts and sciences. They have an alphabet, and the art of writing. M. Gaysa discovered, in one of their principal villages, a small stone monument of a conic shape, covered with numerous inscriptions in letters resembling hieroglyphic characters.

After having studied this curious construction, and after interrogating the oldest inhabitants of the country, and learning the popular tradition, he became convinced that this monument is erected over the grave of James Compagnon, who, being made captive by the Kommenis, instructed them in the principles of all the useful arts, and died about the year 1775, leaving among them the venerated reputation of a sage and a good genius. But the conviction of M. Gaysa was turned into certainty when the chief of the tribe showed him various articles of European manufacture, which have been handed down from father to son, and which they are unwilling to part with at any price. Among these he saw a quadrant, on which was engraved "*James Compagnon.*"

14th. *Opening of the Erie Railroad.*—This great railroad was opened from Piermont, on the Hudson, to Dunkirk, on Lake Erie, a distance of 467 miles, being the largest railroad now in the world.

The President of the United States and his cabinet arrived at New York on the previous day, in order to be present at the opening of the road, and were received, by the Common Council, as the guests of the city. Along with the R. R. Company, and many

invited guests, they left the city at six o'clock, A. M., in the steamer Erie, which was suitably decorated, and saluted by every vessel she met on her way up the river, and, also, from several places on the shore, including old Fort Washington.

The party took the cars at Piermont at eight o'clock, and they were received along the route with the liveliest expressions of joy, all the people appearing to keep the day as a holiday. The President and Mr. Webster were called on to speak at every stopping place, and they expressed the highest admiration of the beauty and grandeur of the scenery through which they passed, and the flourishing appearance of the various places along the road.

On arriving at Elmira, the party dined, and there was a great celebration, during which appropriate speeches were delivered by Mr. Webster and Mr. Seward, and an able address was delivered by Mr. Devin, formerly director of the road.

The trains started at half-past six next morning from Elmira, and arrived at Dunkirk at half-past four, P. M., the occurrences along the route being similar to those of the day before. In the extensive depot of the road, a sumptuous dinner was prepared for all who chose to attend, and arrayed on tables 100 yards long, on which a yoke of barbecued oxen, roasted whole, excited a great deal of curiosity. The loaves of bread were ten feet long by two and a half broad, and carried between two men. A banner was presented to Mr. Loder, the President of the Company, by the ladies of Dunkirk.

Fire at Stockton.—A destructive fire destroyed a large portion of the town of Stockton, in California, which is supposed to have been the work of an incendiary, who wished to release the prisoners confined in the county jail; but this attempt failed, as the wind turned the fire in another direction. The loss is estimated at \$1,500,000.

15th. *Earthquakes.*—A severe shock of an earthquake was felt in the island of Majorca, on the coast of Spain. Another occurred, on the same day, at San Francisco, California. The buildings all shook and trembled, and gamblers rushed into the streets in terror, leaving their gold and silver, unprotected, on their gaming tables; but no damage was sustained of any consequence. Repeated shocks were felt at Gaudaloupe on the following day, which destroyed several houses.

16th. *Fatal Explosion.*—A steam-boiler exploded at Alcala del Rio, near Seville, in Spain, in a garden belonging to the Duke of Montpensier. It destroyed the building, and buried about sixty persons under the ruins, about one-half of whom were killed.

Hurricane in India.—A severe hurricane was experienced in Southern Hindostan, and especially in the island of Ceylon. Sixteen vessels, and many lives, were lost.

17th. *Gold discovered in Australia.*—An immense gold region was discovered in the mountains of New South Wales, especially rich in the Bathurst district. The discovery caused great excitement.

18th. *Riot at Madrid.*—Much excitement was caused in this city by an attack made by the police on some of the students of the University, in the course of which seven of the latter were seriously wounded. In consequence of a decree augmenting the matriculation fee to a sum beyond the pecuniary means of the students, who are, for the most part, youths of very slender resources, a great deal of discontent was manifested among them, especially those belonging to the medical and veterinary schools.

One of the professors of philosophy, in an harangue made to his class, exhorted them not to follow the example of the *cataplasmoras*. The students of medicine, on learning the term so impolitically applied to them, assembled to the number of 400 or 500, and proceeded to his class, and hissed and hooted during the lecture. In the meantime, Chico, the chief of the secret police, with a strong body of civil guards, horse and foot, and a number of police agents, made his appearance as the students were leaving the University, and having met with some resistance in endeavoring to arrest some of the most noisy, charged the excited youths with great barbarity, wounding many and taking a great number prisoners. Great military precautions were immediately taken, as the poverty and distress of the laboring classes, and the general discontent, make the Government look upon every symptom of tumult with uneasiness.

19th. *Methodist Church Case.*—This case was opened in the United States Circuit Court at New York. The Methodist Church South, who had been separated from the Methodist Church North, since 1844, on account of their different views of slavery, brought an action against the latter body, to recover half the value of the extensive book establishment at New York, which had belonged to the common Church before the rupture. The trustees who had charge of it, were not authorized to surrender half the concern to the southern claimants without a suit. After a long trial, which was not concluded till the fall, it was decided that the M. C. South were entitled to one-half of the establishment. The amount in controversy exceeded \$600,000.

22d. *Hail Storms.*—A violent hail-storm passed over Clark County, Ohio, which killed a number of cattle, and caused extensive destruction among the crops.

On the same day, another severe hail-storm occurred at Bangalore, India. Some of the stones were as large as oranges, and broke the roofs of the houses. Numbers of the hail became cemented together as they fell, forming very large masses.

23d. *Arrest of Mr. Brace.*—Mr. Charles L. Brace, an American traveller, was arrested and imprisoned at Pesth in Hungary, by order of the Austrian government, charged with being an emissary from the Hungarian Democrats in America, and of travelling with revolutionary writings, to spread seditious doctrines. He was released after some time.

26th. *Riot at Hoboken, N. J.*—This being the anniversary of the German *Mai-fest*, or May Festival, upwards of ten thousand persons of that nation passed over from New York to Hoboken, to celebrate the anniversary. They had leased for the day a park near the village; and all went on well till, in the afternoon, some young rowdies from New York and Hoboken, styled "Short Boys" and "Rock Boys," interfered with them, by seizing some of their victuals and beer, without any provocation, insulting the females and upsetting the tables. These rowdies were armed, and evidently came for an assault. This led to a fight, in which two Germans were shot. The rowdies were joined by several boys, who made it their business to assault the females, several of whom were severely injured.

The rowdies now assembled round the ferry, and for a long time shut off all communication with the boats. Another German was killed here, one of the rowdies was beaten to death, and another drowned. Many were dangerously wounded on both sides, as the Short Boys had guns, pistols, swords and slung-shot. Several Germans went and procured arms, then came back and formed a hollow square, placing the females in the centre.

The sheriff of the county was early on the ground endeavoring to quell the riot. Justice Browning and another man, while making similar efforts, were very severely wounded. After some time the military arrived from Jersey City; and the riot was totally quelled, although it had subsided before their arrival. Many arrests were made, and the jail at Bergen was crammed full. Many of those arrested were Germans, who were discharged a few days afterwards, as it appeared they only acted in self-defence.

27th. *The Bocarmé Trial.*—Count Hippolyte Visart de Bocarmé, and his wife the Countess, were put on their trial before the Court of Assizes at Mons, in Belgium, for the murder of Gustavus Fougnes, the latter's brother, in November, 1850. The Count belonged to one of the most distinguished families of Belgium. His

father, Julian Bocarmé, married a niece of the Austrian General Chastelit, and was an official of the Dutch government of Java, where Hippolyte, his only son, was born. He was nursed by a Malay woman, and grew up among that people, whose savage and perfidious character he seems to have imbibed. Count Julian afterward returned to Belgium, and lived for some time at Tournay. Here, however, he enjoyed no rest; his love of adventure drove him abroad; and, accompanied by his son, he wandered to North America, where he founded a colony, on the banks of the Ohio. Young Hippolyte remained here until he was eighteen years old, when he returned to Europe, and soon after married a lady, named Lydia Fougnyes, from Peruwetz. His young wife was well educated, with superior talents, possessing a vivid imagination, and cherishing a passionate admiration of the French romance-writers. She sustained personal relations with some of them, among others with Balzac, who often passed several weeks in the summer at Bury Castle in the Tournay, which the young couple had made their residence. She also wrote some few novels, but they are quite insignificant. Such a character was by no means adapted to influence a man like Count Hippolyte, who had brought with him from abroad the instincts of a half-savage. He had also been disappointed in getting less money with her than he had expected. He abandoned himself to his unbridled passions, kept mistresses, and became the terror of his acquaintances, and the distress of his relations. In the village where he lived, he was hated most intensely on account of his severe and cruel disposition.

The dissipated life of the Count produced a total disorder of his finances. He was deeply in debt, and had squandered a large part of his estate. His only hope was in the inheritance of his brother-in-law, Gustavus Fougnyes. This person gave no promise of a long life. His health was bad, and by a fall from a horse he had lost a leg. A deep distrust of his brother-in-law, no one knows why, seems to have been early rooted in his mind. Although he was ardently attached to his sister, and made her the heir of his whole property, he seldom went to Bury, and often said that he was afraid to eat anything there until it had been tasted by his brother-in-law. He was perfectly aware that he was anxious to get hold of his property, and wished nothing so much as his death. It is even said that he once expressed the suspicion that Count Hippolyte had poisoned his father.

Towards the close of last year Fougnyes had made up his mind to marry the Countess de Grandmetz. The wedding day was fixed, the bridal gifts were purchased, the marriage contract was to have been signed on the 23d of November, when Fougnyes,

although advised to the contrary by his intended, who foreboded some bad end, came to the unlucky determination to invite, in person, his sister and brother-in-law to the approaching wedding. The Countess announced the expected visit to her husband on the 20th, who replied, "I will do the business for him to-day." Gustavus Fougnyes arrived at the castle that day, and in the evening he was dead.

On the next morning the report was spread in the village that Fougnyes had died suddenly at the castle, but the people did not hesitate to speak of Count Bocarmé as the murderer. The universal prevalence of the rumor led the magistrate to institute an inquiry. This official was at first very circumspect and lenient towards the Count; but the embarrassment of the accused, with his contradictory answers, at length aroused his suspicions, which soon took a more definite shape. Among other things, the examining judge discovered a deep bite on the hand of the Count, evidently made by a man, and which he could not satisfactorily account for. He accordingly had the Count and Countess taken into custody and sent to Tournay.

The physicians unanimously testified that Fougnyes came to his death by a corrosive poison, probably sulphuric acid, which he had been forced to swallow. But for a long time the bite on the hand was the only circumstance to direct suspicion against the Count. Both the Countess and himself strenuously denied the charge, asserting that Fougnyes must have poisoned himself in their house, since they found him dead in the dining-room, and the servants could throw no light on the matter. At length, Emerence, the French chambermaid of the Countess, made some important disclosures. She stated that, on the morning of November 20, the Count sent his servant to a village several miles off, and she took his place in waiting on the table. When it began to grow dark she asked whether she should bring in lights; but the Count directed her to go to the nursery up stairs, where were the children and the only two waiting-maids then in the house. One of the children wishing for some milk, a maid went down into the kitchen to get it. She was no sooner there than she heard a half-stifled cry in the dining-room: "Murder! assassination! Hippolyte! Hippolyte!" She rushed to the door of the kitchen, which was separated by one room from the dining-room, and saw the Countess come out and shut the door after her. She imperiously ordered the maid to return up stairs. As the latter passed the window of the dining-room she thought she heard the death-rattle of a dying person. She afterward met the Count and Countess on the stairs, on the way to the parlor. They both looked pale and disturbed, and said nothing. Some time after

they went down into the dining-room again, and on the sight of the body broke out into loud cries before the servants, who were now called in.

Soon after the first examination, a chemical laboratory was discovered in the castle. The workman who was employed in it testified that he had been engaged there for fourteen days in succession; that the Count often came in the middle of the night to learn the progress of the work; and that the Countess also had visited the room to see how the "succession water" was getting on. The principal ingredient in the chemical operation was tobacco; and the physician also discovered that the poison was effected by nicotine.

Another fact came to the knowledge of the judge by a lucky accident. On the first report of the crime, the newspapers stated, among other things, that the Count was in Brussels during the summer, when he purchased a new carriage with white linings—he himself wearing fur in spite of the advanced season. These circumstances recalled to a professor of chemistry in Ghent the recollection of a stranger who had repeatedly visited him in the spring to consult him in regard to the preparation of nicotine. He called himself Beirand. The professor stated this to the court, and recognized him as the pretended Beirand. He also delivered letters to the court which had been written to him by Beirand, giving an account of the progress of his operations. The last of these letters concluded as follows: "It has succeeded at last; the trial has been made, and the effect is frightful." The letters are in the handwriting of the Countess. She at last confessed, after obstinately denying for a long time; but she threw the blame on her husband, who she said compelled her by threats of death not to prevent the crime.

After a trial of several days, the jury found the Count guilty, and acquitted the Countess. It appeared that Bocarmé forcibly poured the nicotine down his brother-in-law's throat, and that his wife assisted in the operation. The acquittal of the Countess gave general dissatisfaction. Her husband appealed from the verdict; but the appeal was dismissed.

27th. Riot in England.—A great riot occurred at Tamworth, England, the residence of the late Sir Robert Peel. The protectionists held a public meeting there, and many of the inhabitants of the place, who were opposed to protection, were highly displeased. So they rose in a body, dispersed the meeting, and broke the windows of the house where they had assembled.

28th. Woman's Rights Convention.—A great Convention was held on this and the following day at Akron, Ohio. Resolutions

were passed asserting the perfect equality of woman with man, and demanding the repeal of all laws and arbitrary customs making distinctions between the sexes.

Mrs. Coe remarked that the condition of woman had often been compared to that of the slave, and she thought with considerable justice. She found a very striking analogy, in many instances.

Mrs. Swisshelm, of *The Saturday Visitor*, would have it distinctly understood that she recognized the male and female body, the male and female mind, and male and female duties. Woman, she held, is not equal to man in all things; but neither is man equal to woman in all respects.

Mrs. Coe found fault with man for following every vocation, from the highest to the lowest, leaving none to the exclusive pursuit of woman, while he totally monopolized all the most profitable. She said the creed written on his young heart, from the moment he leaves his mother's apron strings, is

"Go get your gold, no matter how,
No questions asked of the rich I trow;
Steal by night and steal by day,
Doing it all in a legal way.
Be hypocrite, liar, knave or fool,
But don't be poor (remember the rule);
Dimes and dollars, and dollars and dimes,
An empty pocket 's the worst of crimes."

Sojourner Truth, an emancipated slave, whose color and features attested the purity of her blood, here rose and delighted the audience with some of the shrewdest remarks made during the session. She said she was a woman, and had done as much work in the field as any man here. She had heard much about equality of the sexes, but would not argue that question. All she could say was, that if she had a pint of intellect and man a quart, what reason was there that she should not have her pint *full*. She said she could not read, but she could hear. She had heard the Bible read, and was told that Eve caused the fall of man. Well, if woman upset the world, do give her a chance to set it right side up again. She learned also from the new Gospel, that man had nothing to do with bringing Jesus into the world, for God was his father, but woman was his mother. Jesus respected woman, and never turned her away.

Riot in Italy.—A great riot occurred at Florence, caused by the attempt of the police to arrest some young men who had strewn flowers on the tombs in the church of Santa Croce, in honor of those who had fallen for the liberty of Italy, in the battles of Curtalone and Montenara.

Earthquakes.—Repeated shocks of an earthquake were felt for several days at Copiapo and Huasco, in Chili, causing extensive damages.

29th. *Hail-storm.*—A terrible hail-storm occurred in Edgemont township, Delaware County, Penn. Forests, orchards, and corn-fields were devastated. Some of the stones were six inches in circumference.

Slavery Abolished in New-Granada.—The government of New-Granada passed an act abolishing slavery, after the 1st day of January, 1852.

31st. *Great Flood in the West.*—The Upper Mississippi, the Missouri, and their tributaries, were swelled to an unusual degree by heavy rains. A great part of the country on their banks was overflowed, and much property was lost. At Des Moines, the Mississippi was four feet higher than it had ever been seen before. At Burlington, Iowa, many houses on bottom lands were six feet under water; and at Keithsburg, Ill., the water rose to the second story.

Education in Mexico.—From the recent census in this country, it appears that of the whole population over 20 years of age, only one in 103 can read.

This month, Rauch's colossal statue of Frederick the Great was inaugurated at Berlin.

JUNE.

3d. *Maine Liquor Law.*—The Legislature of Maine adjourned, after having passed an act forbidding the manufacture or sale of all spirituous and intoxicating liquors, except by authorized and licensed town agents, and then only for medicinal and mechanical purposes. If any unlicensed person shall manufacture or sell these liquors he is subjected, for the first conviction, to a fine of \$100, for the second conviction, to a fine of \$200, and for the third, to \$200 and four months' imprisonment.

It authorizes the search of stores, &c., for spirituous liquors, when there is reason to believe that such liquors are intended for sale without license, and the destruction of the liquor, unless proved to be imported and in the original packages in which it was imported.

No person engaged in the unlawful traffic is allowed to sit on a jury in any case arising under this act; and all such cases coming before the Superior Court, are to take precedence of all other business except those criminal cases where the parties are actually under arrest and awaiting trial.

A Blue-beard in Florida.—John B. Hardin was arrested in Shelby County, Alabama, for having murdered a man in Washington County, in the same State. He was demanded by the authorities of Florida, whence he had escaped, and accordingly given up, and conveyed to Milton in that State. Here he was executed by the people without a trial, along with a negro who had assisted him in perpetrating the murder. He confessed his crime, and said he had been a villain all his life. He had twenty wives living, had killed sixteen men, and only regretted that he had not killed four more. He refused to make any further confession, as he said he would implicate several heads of families, who passed as respectable. He regretted nothing that he had done, and said that if turned loose again, he would act as before, if not worse.

Cruelties in Italy.—News arrives about this time of many cruelties perpetrated by the governments in different parts of Italy. The following may serve as fair specimens:—

Pietro Ercoli, formerly a member of the Roman Civic Guards, aged 26, was condemned by the tribunal of the Sacra Consulta (Sacred Council) to the Galleys for 20 years, and the payment of the expenses of the prosecution, for "having on the evening of the 10th May, in an inn in the street Lucina, attempted to prevent one Luigi Giannini from lighting a cigar which he wished to smoke." Similar cases, scarcely less cruel, illustrative of royal regard for "reaction" are daily reported from all parts of the countries where the monopoly prevails.

Among numerous condemnations at Milan, on the 27th ult., was a respectable woman, who was sentenced to a year's imprisonment because an old musket, which formerly belonged to her dead husband, was found in her dwelling contrary to law. A poor pyrotechnist is to serve two years for having secreted a little powder to be used in his business.

At Naples, a company of educated young Italians, who had been arrested and imprisoned for belonging to a political society called the Unitarians, were a few days ago taken out under sentence, tied two by two, and marched through the city in a long file, with a strong force of *gen d'armes*, to the Darsena, or dock-yard, where they were fettered with irons, and thrown into the hold of the steamer Stromboli, like wild beasts. A portion of them were conveyed to the prison of St. Stetano, and the others to the Bagnio of Nisita.

Fifty-six other political prisoners, manacled and tied together, were taken from the prison of San Francisco in the light of day, and in the presence of a mourning multitude, driven up the steep

hill of the prison of Santa Maria. Three of them were octogenarians—pallid, weary, infirm, and well-born gentlemen, whose only crime was having hearts to feel for the oppressed of their poorer countrymen. The learned Deputy Domenico Giannattasio—so well known in the country for his probity, was also of the number. The sister of one of them also suffered in another prison the cruelest privations for the crime of sympathising with her brother. Another young lady of highly-respectable parentage was subsequently torn from home in the night by the police, in the midst of the frantic protestations of her mother, on suspicion of a conspiracy for the rescue of her friend, Antonio Dehonneti, formerly President of the Constitutional Club, and a few days after condemned to perpetual imprisonment.

Luigi Settembrini, a learned man of unimpeachable morals, was condemned to die, on a false charge of having used his learning to diffuse the doctrines of civil and religious liberty enshrined in the American Constitution. The following is an extract from his speech in his own defence:—

“I hope that I have clearly demonstrated that I am neither a sectary nor a conspirator, and from this felon’s bench I can say with a lofty brow that *I am an honest man*. If it is imputed to me as a crime to be honest, to have believed that virtue is not an illusion, to have spent my life in labors, toils, and pains of every sort, to have dedicated myself fondly to the instruction of the young and to the performance in the world of my share of good; if this is my crime, put me to death; I disdain to live where virtue is a crime. I shall go to present myself before another judge, and from Him I shall have that justice which men deny me. To you, O judges, I have only to say, bear in mind the evils of the times; remember, slight is the charge against me and destitute of proofs; remember that every man, even yourselves, may be calumniated in the same way; remember that after your decision, comes the decision of all Europe, which observes you—comes the sentence of *God*, by whom all the men and all the judges of the earth are to be judged!”

7th. *Tempest in Wisconsin.*—A furious whirlwind passed over Walworth County, Wisconsin. Five or six persons were killed, much crop destroyed, and about thirty houses levelled with the ground.

10th. *Fatal and Destructive Casualties.*—About this time the steamer *New World*, while on her passage from Sacramento to San Francisco, Cal., exploded her boiler, killing four five persons, and scalding seven or eight.

About the same time, the steamer Lafayette, of New Orleans, burst her boiler. Six were killed, and many seriously wounded.

A fire broke out at the city of Archangel, in Northern Russia, which destroyed nearly two hundred buildings, and caused the loss of several lives.

Nearly at the same time, a severe hurricane occurred at Charkoff, in Russia, which killed a great number of persons, and committed very extensive ravages among the crops and fruit-trees. Torrents of rain fell at the same time.

A fire broke out at the village of Newbury, in Vermont, which destroyed nearly one half of the whole place.

The ship Atiet Rohoman, an East India vessel, bound for Bombay, from Jidda in Arabia, was wrecked on the island of Kenery, and 175 of her passengers were lost.

An extensive fire broke out at Madras, which destroyed the church of San Lorenzo, and a large number of other buildings.

Sixty-five prisoners, who were chained together, and sleeping in a hut, at Gobindpore in India, were burnt to death by the hut's accidentally taking fire, only five out of seventy escaping.

Lynching in California.—A returned Sydney convict, named Jenkins, was hanged at San Francisco, after a brief examination by a number of citizens, who had formed themselves into a vigilance committee. The offence with which he was charged was stealing a small iron safe from a store. The police attempted to rescue the culprit from the mob; but they were driven away.

Escape of an Irish Patriot.—Terence B. McManus, one of the patriots banished by the British Government to Australia, arrived at San Francisco, after making his escape.

The Advance and Rescue.—The two vessels sent out by Mr. Henry Grinnell, of New York, in search of Sir John Franklin, were liberated from a nine months' captivity in the Polar ice.

Mormon Troubles in Beaver Island, Mich.—Our readers may be aware that one section of the Mormons, formerly settled in Hancock Co., Illinois, have been for some time stationed on Beaver Island, in the Lake Michigan, under the leadership of their prophet, James J. Strang, otherwise termed King Strang. Two men of the name of Bennett lived on the island, who had resisted all the efforts of the Mormons to convert them. Hence, it is said, their dwellings had been burnt the preceding winter, and threats had been uttered that they should be driven from the island, un-

less they adopted the Mormon faith. They still remained resolute: and therefore some 40 or 50 of Strang's disciples procured a precept from a Mormon justice, and went to the house of the Bennetts, to arrest them and confiscate their property. This warrant was issued under allegations that the Bennetts had assaulted and beaten a Mormon of the name of Graham some time before. The doors were closed on their approach, and Thomas Bennett told them they could not enter. They then fired into the house, and he fled—although the Mormons say he had fired on them previously—but before going far he was shot dead, and his brother was dangerously wounded. This proceeding excited a strong feeling against the Mormons among the Indians, and others on the island who were not Mormons; and they armed themselves to take vengeance, when some persons persuaded them to await the due execution of the law.

Several of the Mormons, including Strang, were soon after arrested, and brought to Detroit for trial in the U. S. Court, on the charges of obstructing the mail, counterfeiting coin, and wasting the public lands, bills of indictment having been found against them for these offences. Many witnesses were examined for Strang, some of whom swore that he is a prophet, clothed with miraculous powers, among which is *the gift of prophesy*. One of the witnesses, who calls himself a High Priest, being under examination upon oath, in answer to Strang's interrogatories, swore before the Commissioner that "he *knew* Strang to be a prophet of the earth, gifted by divine inspiration with miraculous powers, and endowed with divine grace:" that he (witness) as High Priest, had taken the "Covenant" from St. James (Strang), by laying hands on the cross, and by signing it. This witness went on to say: "I believe Strang to be a prophet, whose inspiration comes from God, like that of Isaiah, and the other prophets of old, and that he can foretel things of the future, and that, when inspired, he can speak from, and translate unknown tongues!" The witness added—"He reveals himself sometimes in the presence of others. I have witnessed communications of inspiration between God and others, and would regard such communications as law!"

Upon the trial, they were all acquitted on the charge of obstructing the mail; but several of them were bound over to stand a trial at the autumn term, upon the other charges.

Dinner to Archbishop Hughes.—The Catholics of Liverpool gave a great dinner to this dignitary, previous to his return to the United States. About 100 were present, of whom twenty or upwards were priests. The Pope, the Queen, Prince Albert and the Royal Family, Cardinal Wiseman and the Catholic Hierarchy

in England, and "His Grace, the most Rev. Dr. Hughes, Archbishop of New-York, our distinguished guest," were toasted in succession. The Chairman, in giving the last toast, praised the superior freedom of religion in America: there was more toleration there than in England, and it was a happier country. He also spoke of the unity of the Catholic Church, and finally eulogized the Archbishop, one of whose claims was that he was an Irishman.

Archbishop Hughes replied. He praised the Unity of the Roman faith. It was not British, he said; it was not Whig; it was not Tory; it was not Democratic, but it was Catholic, Divine, made for mankind, and not for provinces or nations alone. It was like the light of heaven, in itself colorless; or like the atmosphere, which was the medium of light, untainted in itself. He conceived that every man who loved the strength of the British empire must deplore the spectacle which its guardians now exhibit, when they were spending day after day legislating for two-thirds of the people against the other third, by way of cementing the union. He then referred to Ireland, and said that one-eighth of the people of that country had long usurped the whole care of the legislature. The rights of his birth, along with that of the other seven-eighths, had been washed out by the rites of baptism. He was one of those who left with other driftwood, that unhappy country, and he had found in America a mother who adopted him among her own most favored children. There had been no honor conferred upon him in which the rest of the religious world there did not seem to take a pleasure. He could imagine how even the bigots among them (for there were some there) would stare at a man who should call in question his right to call himself Archbishop of New York. They admitted the principle of liberty of conscience, and were too shrewd and logical not to admit the consequence. Here, he said, all that the hierarchy had asked of the British Legislature was the loan of a few letters of the alphabet. The Rev. speaker then adverted to the various distinguished converts who had of late years gone over to the Church of Rome, and concluded by proposing the health of the Chairman.

Among the toasts given subsequently was, "The United States and her Institutions, founded as they are upon the true principles of religious freedom."

12th. *Sword-fish*.—On examining the bark Said Ben Sultan, of Salem, Mass., for a leak, the weapon of a sword-fish was discovered, which had penetrated into the lining through the copper and plank, having passed between two timbers. The fragment

remaining in the vessel was about sixteen inches in length. The blow was inflicted when the bark was crossing the equator, in her last voyage, and was distinctly felt at the time, and noted in the log book. The fish also was seen in a bleeding condition.

Cultivation of the Tea Plant in China.—It is stated, in the last advices received from China, that Mr. Robert Fortune, who has been engaged by the Honorable East India Company to procure and transmit to India a selection of the tea plant, for cultivation in the north-western provinces, has succeeded in obtaining from the green tea districts a large number of the finest plants, with which he was leaving for Calcutta. He had also secured the services of eight Chinese, from the district of Weichow, who have agreed to serve him for three years, at the rate of fifteen dollars per month each. Six of them are regular tea manufacturers, and the other two are pewterers, whose sole business is that of preparing lead castings for the tea-chests. Mr. Fortune had penetrated into the interior of China about three hundred miles; and during the whole of his lengthened absence from consular ports had never been molested, nor in any way insulted. He expects to have completed his labors in arranging the plantations for the East India Company before September next. The first plants he transmitted have flourished as well as could possibly be expected; but, under his personal superintendence and the attention of the native tea manufacturers, there is every reason to expect the most favorable results. Probably, in a few years, tea will form an article of export from the Indian presidencies.

16th. *Jubilee of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.*—To-day the third Jubilee of this Society was celebrated in various parts of the world, from Hudson's Bay to China. Their charter was granted by King William III., on the 16th of June, 1701. In the city of New York the celebration services were held in Trinity Church, by direction of the ecclesiastical authority of the Diocese. Besides the Episcopal clergy of the city and its vicinity, with the wardens and vestrymen of the congregations, who were specially invited, Columbia College and Trinity School took a prominent place in the celebration. Columbia College, at the commencement of its anti-colonial existence, received from the Association the foundation of her noble library, besides liberal pecuniary aid; and Trinity School was founded by the Society, which sent out the first master of the School in 1709. The Faculty and students of the General Theological Seminary, by special invitation, assembled at Columbia College, where they joined the Faculty, Alumni and students of that institution (the clergy

being in their robes), and in joint procession they moved to Trinity Church, where an able sermon was preached by the Rev. Dr. McVickar, from the text, "A jubilee shall that fiftieth year be to you."

17th. *The Tehuantepec Survey Stopped.*—The Mexican Government prohibited by a decree the scientific survey of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and ordered all Americans engaged on the work to desist.

18th. *Temperance Celebration.*—The "Sons of Temperance," from all parts of the United States and Canada, held a great celebration at Toronto, C.W. About 8,000 persons took part in the "jubilee" and processions.

Singular Death.—A young man by the name of Vickery was to have been married at Cleveland, Ohio, on this day, but in consequence of the illness of his intended, the wedding was postponed two weeks, and he died in a few days afterward. He had an affection of the heart, which when excited troubled him very much. On the evening of his death, he had been reading to his intended the story of "Walter Erric." It was a very exciting tale of "love and murder," and under the circumstances wrought deeply upon his feelings. When he had finished reading the last paragraph, ending with the sudden death of "Erric," he remarked that "he hoped that he should not die thus suddenly." The young lady looked at him and saw his hand falling which held the paper, and his countenance changed to a deathly hue. She took hold of him from her chair, when he leaned gently toward her, and died in her arms.

The Slave-Trade on the Guinea Coast.—The following interesting communication was received at this time from an intelligent officer serving on the African coast:

"I think for the present the slave-trade is suppressed, but a number of slaves are assembled at Lagos, Agway, and Whydah; and as the boating season is over here, and thick weather coming on, no doubt but that they will again commence. Some of the slave-merchants would gladly give up the trade, but they are so circumstanced with the King of Dahomey that it is impossible; for instance, his highness sends an order to a merchant for 100 pipes of rum, 1,000 muskets, powder, &c.; in lieu of paying in money or produce, he marches down slaves, which the merchant must receive in payment or take nothing. With the King of Dahomey at present rests the principal part, if not the whole, of the slave-trade from Cape St. Paul's to Port Nevo. Lagos is an independent kingdom. The lawful king is at present at Fernando Po, without a sixpence, his throne being usurped by his nephew, who

is a great scoundrel. The ex-king promises to abolish slavery forever in his dominions, and permit the British to build a fort at Lagos, if they will restore him to his kingdom. A singular fact has just occurred under my own hands, which shows the temper of the present King of Lagos, who is doubtless ruled by the slave-merchants. A vessel arrived in the roads from Bahia, with a great number of liberated slaves on board, but they were not permitted to land at that place; they will in all probability be enabled to come up to Bagadry. If we can get the King of Dahomey to give up slaving (which I scarcely think possible under present circumstances, as I foretold the failure of Mr. Forbes' mission), and erect a fort at Lagos, we shall suppress the traffic entirely in the whole of the Bight of Benin. The fort at Lagos could be held the same as the Whydah, and nothing could be easier taken than the present town and the ex-king."

A Turtle turned Traveller.—In May, 1841, Master Charles H. Melcher, a son of Daniel Melcher, Esq., of Exeter, N. H., found a common spotted turtle in a small pool near the ruins of an old farm-house, about two miles from the town, and a third of a mile from the river, and brought it home. Having cut his name and the date upon the shell of the animal, he dropped it into the river from Great Bridge, a distance of full four miles, by the course of the river, from the place in which it was found.

Young Melcher being at the same pool on this day, found there the identical turtle which he had taken from it ten years before, bearing upon its shell the marks which he had made, although of course time had rendered them less distinct than they were originally.

That the animal should have succeeded in finding its way for four miles, against the current, notwithstanding all the sinuosities of the river, and at least a third of a mile by land, a part which was through woods, back to its old haunts, indicate that even the turtle, which has been derided from classic days up to the present time for making two steps backward to one forward, possesses some faculties closely akin to reason.

20th. Terrible Accident.—While 158 monks, belonging to the convent of Vladimir, 150 miles northeast of Moscow, in Russia, were crossing a bridge in procession, to visit an image of the Virgin Mary at a neighboring village, they were precipitated into the river, and were all drowned. The stream is 45 feet deep at this place, with high cliffs.

Remarkable Preservation.—A portion of the shaft of the North Side Colliery, near Bristol, England, gave way, and completely

closed the exit from the mine below, while 41 men were at work there. The shaft is 270 yards deep; and the men had neither light nor drink, and very little air. Various efforts were made to extricate them, but for some time without success. At last the obstruction was removed; and they were all rescued, after having been in the pit for upwards of 24 hours, and having suffered much from foul air.

The Nicaragua Route.—The Government of the State of Nicaragua revoke the grant of an exclusive right of way to the American, Atlantic, and Pacific Ship-Canal Company for navigating the internal waters of the State.

22d. *Another Great Fire at San Francisco.*—A sixth great conflagration broke out at San Francisco, Cal. Thirteen blocks, containing about 500 houses, were destroyed; and the loss is estimated at about \$3,000,000. Several persons were burnt to death. This fire reduced most of the business part of the city to a heap of ashes.

As a proof of the energy and activity of the inhabitants, we may mention that a great part of what had been destroyed by the great fire of the preceding month, was already rebuilt when this new catastrophe occurred. It was attributed to incendiaries, against whom a violent excitement prevailed.

24th. *New-York Canal Bill.*—A bill was passed by the legislature of the State of New-York, at an extra session, authorizing the Government to borrow \$10,000,000 for completing the enlargement of the Erie, Genesee Valley, and Black River Canals, upon a pledge of the future proceeds of the works. The bill was strongly opposed by many, on the ground that it was unconstitutional.

25th. *Pinnacle Rock Blasted.*—The Pinnacle Rock, near the Middle Falls, at Portage, N. Y., was blasted by order of Commissioner Follet, and it was hurled into the river below. The peak rose three hundred feet over the river, and was a dangerous point. The part blasted was fifteen feet long, as many high, and twelve feet wide, and weighed 250 tons.

26th. *A Singular Murder.*—Catharine Sullivan, an Irishwoman, was murdered by Ellen Doyle, another woman of the same nation, in Orange street, New-York, by a blow on the head with an iron pot, one of the legs of which broke, and stuck in her forehead.

27th. *A Ship Destroyed by Spontaneous Combustion.*—News arrived of the loss of the barque Mary White, described as a fine

vessel of 400 tons burden, while in lat. 37° N. long. $29\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ W. on a voyage from Sydney, New South Wales, to London. Her cargo consisted partly of wool and partly of linseed oil. By a leakage of one of the oil-casks, some of the wool became saturated; and being closely pressed in bales, ignited spontaneously.

The fire was first discovered about midnight on the 14th of May. The seamen in the fore-castle observing a vapor or steam arising from below, called the attention of the chief officer who was on duty at the time to the circumstance, and the master being aroused, all hands were turned out, and a strict search was made to ascertain the cause. Portions of the cargo were overhauled, and every place was examined, but nothing could be traced. No heat was experienced, and the conclusions the men came to, were that the vapor they had seen must have emanated from a quantity of damp bones and hides that were known to be in the lower part of the hold. The next day the vapor was again noticed by the men, and as the evening set in there was a strong smell of burning wool united with it.

The master, Capt. Walker, now became convinced that the cargo was on fire, and the passengers having got acquainted with the truth, naturally evinced much alarm. The boats were got ready, and provisioned in case of emergency, while the scuttle and fore-hatch were closely fastened down. The ship was then 246 miles distant from Terceira. The weather was fine, with a strong breeze, and all sail was made for the land. During that and the succeeding night and day, the smoke and heat increased tenfold, indicating too clearly that the fire was gaining rapidly. The pumps were kept going all the time, and tons and tons of water were discharged into the hold. By ten o'clock on the night of the 17th of May, the heat and smoke became intolerable.

For safety, the boats were got out, and hauled along side, ready to jump into at a moment's notice. Another night was passed in awful suspense. About five o'clock the crew joyously descried a sail astern. Signals of distress were made, and in a short time she came up to the burning ship. She proved to be a Russian brig called the *Precioso*, M. Weikman, master, from Rio to Abo, in Finland. The moment she came up, Capt. Walker sent off his chief officer to communicate the perilous condition of his vessel, and to ask if they would take the passengers on board. The mate had scarcely reached the brig before the fire burst forth from the fore part of the vessel. As quickly as possible the passengers were placed in the boats, the females being seen first in, and were taken to the brig forthwith. The crew were compelled to abandon the vessel within a quarter of an hour afterwards, and seek refuge on board the Russian brig. Her decks, as it were, blew up, and

she appeared in flames from stem to stern. The Russian brig landed the shipwrecked sufferers some days after at Fayal.

A Leap for Life.—As Mr. J. Miller, the supervisor of inland revenue at Aberystwith, in Wales, with his nephew, and two professional geologists, was lately examining some strata of rocks in the cliffs between Aberystwith and Llanrystid, they proceeded along a narrow ledge of projecting rock on the face of the cliff, about 120 feet above the level of the sea, which providentially happened to be at full flow. In passing round a projecting angle, which for ages has frowned upon all below, the professor and revenue officer had rounded the point, and the young man was in the act of doing so, when the rock suddenly breaking from under his feet, he was whirled around with his face to the sea, and as he descended he seized with one hand the ledge beneath his uncle's feet, while he extended the other hand to him, and it was firmly clasped by the revenue officer, who held him suspended for full five minutes, during which time he with great difficulty maintained his position, there being but six inches to stand upon.

At length a breathless pause ensued, whilst Mr. Miller gazed on a rugged projection of rock about 90 feet below them, on which he concluded the unfortunate youth was evidently doomed to be dashed. But the uncle (who calls him an "awful coward") at length said, with all the calmness imaginable, "Tom, there's but one way for it; I'll save you, or we'll both perish together," and with a firm voice he commanded the young man to loose his hold of the rock, which was mechanically obeyed, with a faint reply, "Yes, uncle." At this awful moment Mr. Miller horizontally sprang into the air, carrying the young man with him, and such was the force with which he leaped, that the check caused them to throw several somersets over each other as they descended linked together.

With the rapidity of a flash of lightning they disappeared beneath the foaming billows, having cleared the craggy ledge, which projected more than six feet from the perpendicular of the point over which the youth was suspended. To the delight of their companions, who were momentarily horror-struck, they arose about twenty yards apart, buffeting the heavy swells of the flowing and returning waves; at length they struck out for a rock that lay about seventy yards in the sea, on which they were seated, and from which they gave three hearty cheers. Their companions attempted to procure their rescue by obtaining a boat, but owing to a breach in the ledge found it impossible, and had to proceed onward for more than three hours before they were able to extricate themselves.

To their delight, the geologists then found that their dauntless companions had once more committed themselves to the deep, had swam to an accessible part of the cliff, and returned to Llanrystid, where, with the exception of loss of hats, the officer's boots (which he had taken off on first starting from the ledge) and a few slight cuts and bruises, they appeared not a whit the worse for their perilous adventure.

30th. Riot at Liverpool.—An affray occurred at Liverpool, Eng., between the police and some soldiers of the 91st regiment stationed there. The riot was suppressed after some time by the energy of the authorities, but not before several persons had been killed.

Dreadful Ravages of the Plague in the Canaries.—A terrible pestilence raged during this month at the Grand Canary, which was introduced by fishing vessels from the adjacent coast of Africa, where it is said to have caused frightful mortality and desolation. At San Jose there were at one time 100 deaths per day; the city was mostly deserted, and several of the dead lay unburied. Six thousand died at Las Palmas, and about 16,000 on the island, in two months. It continued to rage till the middle of August.

Extraordinary Escape.—While the children of Mr. George Hicken, a citizen of Scott county, Virginia, were playing together in a field near the mouth of a fathomless sink-hole, one of them, a boy about eight or ten years of age, accidentally pushed his little brother, about four years old, headlong over the edge, and he fell into the deep, dark pit below. It was some time after the child was missed before any certain information could be drawn from the others as to what had become of him, and it was only by threats of severe punishment that they finally overcame their fear, and extorted from the boy who did the deed a confession of what had happened.

An effort was made immediately to ascertain the situation of the little fellow, and afford him relief, if he was not beyond its power. Ropes were tied together, with a stone attached to one end, and an attempt was made to fathom the depth beneath, but more than sixty feet of rope were employed in vain; no bottom could be reached. A lighted candle was then let down, but its light gave no hopeful indication, except that the pit was free from choke damp, or impure air, as far down as the candle descended. Night came on, and all further efforts were abandoned.

On the next day, further trials were made of the depth of the pit, but with no better success. In despair, the frantic parents were about to give up all hopes of recovery or relieving their child, and preparations were being made to close up the mouth of the

pit to prevent a like occurrence for the future, when it was suggested that another and a final effort should be made by letting some individual down by ropes to examine the nature of the abyss, and ascertain if there was any encouragement for further efforts to be found below. A brother of the lost child undertook the fearful task. Cords were fastened round his waist and limbs, and one to his wrist, by which he might indicate to those above his wishes either to descend or to be drawn up.

He was swung off, and slowly lowered, until having gone to the depth of about fifty feet, he looked below him, and there shone through the thick darkness two glistening eyes intently looking upward. In another moment he was standing on a shelf or angle in the shaft with the child clasped to his bosom. He fastened his brother securely to his own body, and bidding him take the rope firmly in his hands, the signal was given to draw up. The child hung convulsively to the rope, and in a few minutes arose within view of the hundred anxious spectators who had assembled to witness the result, and when the first glimpse of the little fellow, alive, caught their eager gaze, screams and shouts of joy from the excited multitude filled the air, and big tears of sympathy started from the eyes of every beholder.

After the first paroxysm of delight had subsided, the child was examined to see if he had sustained any injury, and, extraordinary to tell, with the exception of a little bruise on the back of the head, he was perfectly sound and unhurt. The only complaint he made was that he was hungry, being nearly 27 hours under the ground. To inquiries made of him he replied that he saw a light and heard it thunder. From the nature of the pit it appeared that he had fallen a perpendicular distance of 40 feet, upon a slope or bend in the shaft, and from that place slid down 20 feet further, to the spot where he was found leaning against a sort of pillar or wall, and gazing upward. The force of his first fall was probably broken by his striking against the sides of the pit during his descent.

AMERICAN OBITUARY.

JANUARY, 1851.

7th. At Hanover, N. H., STEPHEN CHASE, aged 37, Professor of Mathematics in Dartmouth College. Mr. Chase was well known for his attainments as a general scholar, and his contributions to some of the best religious periodicals of our time.

At Catskill, N. Y., Rev. DAVID PORTER, D.D., aged 90, a distinguished divine.

11th. At Williamsport, Penn., Hon. JOSEPH B. ANTHONY, aged 56, presiding judge of the Eighth District Court of Pennsylvania, and late member of Congress.

At Wrentham, Mass., Rev. ELISHA FISK, aged 81, the oldest clergyman in Massachusetts.

12th. At Philadelphia, Lieut. Col. PATRICK GALT, of the U. S. Army. Col. Galt was a native of Williamsburgh, Virginia, and entered the army during the last war with Great Britain.

14th. At Biloxi, Louisiana, Hon. CHARLES WATTS, aged 62. Judge Watts was a native of New York, but had resided in Louisiana about thirty years, and held the office of judge of the Commercial Court at the time of the adoption of the new constitution. He had many eccentricities; but his character was above reproach; and in all the relations of life he was unexceptionable. On the announcement of his death, the courts adjourned.

At Philadelphia, in the 72d year of his age, THOMAS BIRCH, a native of England. Mr. Birch was a celebrated painter, and excelled particularly in marine pieces.

15th. In Lexington District, S. C., Rev. JAMES WALLACE, D.D., author of a treatise on the Globes and on Practical Astronomy, Dr. Wallace was formerly Professor of Mathematics in Columbia College, N. Y., afterwards in Georgetown College, D. C., and he held a similar situation at the time of his death in South Carolina College.

At Louisville, Ky., Major PIERCE BUTLER, a distinguished

lawyer, and for several years a member of the Legislature of Kentucky.

18th. In Talbot County, Md., SAMUEL HAMBLETON, aged 73, senior Purser of the U. S. Navy. Mr. Hambleton was purser on board the brig Lawrence, which bore the pennant of Commodore Perry in his memorable battle on the Lakes. He served with the Commodore at the last gun fired from the brig, and was desperately wounded by a discharge from the enemy, which dismantled the gun, and left the vessel powerless.

20th. At Mayville, N. Y., DONALD MCKENZIE, aged 68, formerly a partner with John Jacob Astor in the fur trade. In 1825 he was appointed Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company. He left it in 1832, and returned to Mayville, where he lived till his death.

21st. Near Minden, in Germany, Mr. JOHN B. ARDEN, of New York, late attaché of the U. S. Embassy at Berlin. Mr. Arden was travelling on the Railroad from Berlin to Cologne, and met his death by the cars running off the track. Of two hundred passengers, he was the only one who was killed; and it is supposed that he attempted to leap from the cars. He received a mortal blow on the head and died instantly. His body was taken to the little town of Gutersloh, where the people showed the utmost sympathy for his unhappy fate.

22d. At Philadelphia, Rev. WALTER COLTON, aged 54. Mr. Colton was a native of Vermont, and studied at Yale College and the Theological Seminary at Andover. After having been ordained a Congregational minister he accepted a Professorship in the Middletown Military Academy, and while holding that office wrote several articles for periodicals. In 1828, he became editor of the "*American Spectator*" at Washington; and two years afterwards he was appointed a chaplain in the Navy by Gen. Jackson, who had a very high opinion of Mr. Colton. He edited the Philadelphia "*North American*" for some time, and continued to contribute extensively to Magazines and Reviews.

Having gone to California during the Mexican war, in his capacity of Navy chaplain, he was appointed by Commodore Stockton Alcalde or chief civil magistrate of Monterey, in that State. He was afterwards repeatedly elected to the same office by the people, and discharged its duties with great ability and fidelity. He also officiated at Monterey, during the war, as a judge of admiralty, and his decisions are considered very accurate. A letter written by him from Monterey, which appeared in the Philadelphia "*North American*," was the first public announcement of the great gold discovery in California.

Besides his contributions to periodicals, Mr. Colton was the author of several popular works, of which the principal are, "*Ship and Shore*," "*Visit to Constantinople and Athens*," "*Deck and Port*," being a journal of his voyage in the ship Congress to California, by way of the Sandwich Islands, and "*Three Years in California*." He established at Monterey the first newspaper which ever appeared in California, entitled "*The Californian*." It is now called "*The Alta Californian*." He also built the first school-house and the first public hall in the State. Mr. Colton was a faithful officer, a kind-hearted friend, and a sincere Christian.

* 25th. At Richmond, Va., JOHN CULLEN, M.D., aged 53, for a long time Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine in the Medical Department of Hampden Sydney College.

27th. At Minniesland, on the Hudson, near New York, JOHN JAMES AUDUBON, aged 71, the celebrated Ornithologist. He was born at New Orleans, on the 4th May, 1780, his father being an admiral in the French navy. He received his education at Paris, the celebrated David being one of his teachers. He returned to Louisiana at the age of seventeen, and entered on his paternal estates. He soon afterwards married; and his circumstances were such that he might have devoted himself to a life of luxurious ease. But his fondness for the beauties of nature led him to explore the wilds; and he planned his great work on American birds as early as 1803. His father had given him a fine plantation near the Schuylkill, in Pennsylvania; and he had engaged in some mercantile speculations at Philadelphia, which are said to have been unsuccessful. In 1810, therefore, he sailed down the Ohio in a skiff, with his wife and child, in search of some spot in the wilderness which he might make his home, and where he might perform those explorations to which he had resolved to devote all his energies. He accordingly fixed on a site in Kentucky, and during the next twenty years he pursued his researches all over North America, and met with many romantic incidents and adventures. The drawings of the birds which he procured were made by himself, and they were superior to the colored engravings which afterwards appeared in his great work, although those who have seen the latter will allow that they are a credit to the engraver. The sacrifice of time and labor, and the degree of exposure which Mr. Audubon sometimes underwent, in procuring his specimens, were such as would seem almost incredible to less enthusiastic admirers of nature.

At one time he lost nearly 1,000 drawings by fire. The loss affected him so that he could not sleep for several nights; but he resolved to replace it by renewed labors. In this attempt he was

completely successful; and within three years his portfolio was better than before.

In 1824, Lucien Bonaparte proposed to purchase his drawings: but Mr. Audubon rejected the offer, and resolved to publish them himself. He accordingly went to England with that intention; and before his return he visited the European Continent, where Cuvier and M. Humboldt, with whom he had become acquainted and travelled during his wanderings in Mexico, received him with distinguished honor.

His personal appearance and his magnificent portfolio of drawings excited not a little attention. His tall form, his noble features, and the eagle glance of his eye, united with his simplicity of manners, and his lively conversation, marked him out as a man of no ordinary character. His habits also appeared to the denizens of the large cities of England to be somewhat singular. "It was pleasant," says a correspondent of the London Athenæum, "to watch him as he walked through the streets of Liverpool, with his long black hair curling on his shoulders, and his trousers of New Harmony cloth, as full as petticoats, to the great edification of passers-by, himself innocently unconscious of any singularity of appearance. There was no resisting his enthusiasm on his own subject—nor the affectionate and self-engrossed earnestness with which he threw himself on the sympathy and good offices of those who welcomed him. He brought his forest ways with him—kept the habits of the birds—went to roost when candles were lighted at Midsummer, and was up before day dawn, dragging out of their beds (I shiveringly recollect) the youngsters who might be under the same roof, to share the walk which he always took before sunrise, to watch his friends as soon as they began to stir in their nests.

"At that time he kept a most copious journal of all his impressions of England, its things, and its men and women (a somewhat bird's-eye view of society, perhaps), and not only did he invite every one who would to copy it, but in his unsuspiciousness would read aloud to the parties described his notes of themselves, their doings, and their conventional, *un-bird-like* ways. How racy and fresh this journal was, may be inferred from the excellent interludes of wild life and adventures which diversify the scientific letter-press of the four volumes describing the 'Birds of America.'

"Nothing in the old world was unnoticed; but nothing was described in common language or measured according to common standards. It would be a pity if a record so sincere and so graphic should not one day see the light. Audubon had a keen, though imperfectly cultivated, sense of other arts besides his own:—was

passionately fond of music, so far as he could follow it,—and loved to have poetry read to him while he was making his birds upon paper (for drawing his rapid process hardly seemed to be.) He had all the grace, too, which the perfect command over every limb, great personal symmetry and muscular strength, could give.

“Even before Audubon came first to London, the American Woodsman had in some degree begun to wane before the gentleman Naturalist. The long hair had been cut off—the ample pantaloons taken in—the journal was locked up:—and while he was living in Great Russell Street, Bloomsbury, I recollect his bewailing his own degeneracy in getting up for a run to Hampstead so late as five in the morning.”

Mr. Audubon afterwards returned repeatedly to the United States and pursued his former researches, till the appearance of his great work, the last part of which appeared at London, in 1839. It was published by subscription, at two hundred guineas a copy. An edition, in seven octavo volumes, with the plates greatly reduced in size, was afterwards published at New York, and finished in 1845. In that year, the plates of the first edition, which had been sent out from London, were destroyed by the great fire in that city in July. Five volumes of “*Ornithological Biography*” from his pen appeared at Philadelphia and London between 1831 and 1839.

In 1842, in connection with Dr. Bachman, he commenced a work entitled “*The Quadrupeds of America*,” the last number of which appeared only a few months before his death. This work is considered a worthy companion to the “*Ornithology*.”

During several of the last years of his life, Mr. Audubon mixed little in society; but he still preserved much of the sprightliness of his earlier years; and he never lost his simplicity of manners or cheerfulness of temper. Although he was justly classed with men of genius himself, he was accustomed to say that he had no faith in genius, and that a steady and continued application would make a man whatever he pleased, an opinion which is apt to be adopted by men who owe much to nature, although many facts prove that it is incorrect.

Most of Mr. Audubon’s descriptions were made from his own observations and drawings; and in taking the latter, his plan was, to observe the animal closely for some time before he shot it, after which he immediately placed it in proper natural attitude, and sketched his drawing before it was cold. He complained that he could never get his colors to equal the beauty and brilliancy of the originals.

Of the character of his works, especially the “*Ornithology*,” it is unnecessary to speak, as it is everywhere pronounced by the best

judges a work of surpassing merit, not only for the drawings, but for the accuracy and force of the descriptions, and the variety of stirring incidents with which they abound.

30th. At Windsor, Vermont, Hon. HORACE EVERETT, aged 71. He represented his district in Congress from 1829 to 1843, and acquired a great reputation as an able speaker. Mr. Everett was one of the oldest members of the bar in Vermont, and in the earlier days of his professional career one of the ablest pleaders and jury lawyers in that State.

In Gardiner, Maine, Major SETH GAY, aged 89. Mr. Gay was a native of Massachusetts, and removed to Gardiner immediately after the revolutionary war. He was present at the battle of Lexington, although he was then only fifteen years of age, and was one of the first who gave notice of the approach of the British. He was town clerk of Gardiner for nearly fifty years, and through his long life he was distinguished for his courteous manners and gentlemanly deportment.

31st. At Washington, D. C., Hon. DAVID S. KAUFMAN, aged 38, member of Congress from Texas. Mr. Kaufman was a native of Cumberland, Pennsylvania, and graduated with applause at Princeton College in 1833. He afterwards studied law with Gen. Quitman at Natchez, and settled at Nacogdoches in Texas in 1837. In 1838 he was elected a member of the Texan Congress, and was twice chosen Speaker of the House, an office which he discharged with marked ability. In 1843 he became a member of the Senate, and was one of the committee of Foreign Relations who, in 1844, presented a strong report in favor of annexation to the United States. He took a very active part in promoting that measure, and contributed much to its accomplishment. After the Texan Congress adjourned in 1845, he was appointed Chargé to this country; but that office was soon superseded by the final act of annexation. Mr. Kaufman was one of the first members elected to the U. S. House of Representatives under that act, and held the office till his death.

FEBRUARY.

2d. At Paris, Rev. JOHN OGILBY, D.D., Rector of St. Mark's Church, N. Y. Dr. Ogilby was for nine years Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church in the city of New York.

3d. At Mount Victoria, Vaudreuil, Canada East, the Hon. MR. PYKE, aged 76, one of the Judges of the District of Montreal.

This venerable and much respected man was born in Nova Scotia, in 1774; studied law under Mr. Uniacke, then Attorney General of that province, and came to Quebec when about twenty years of age. He was soon after admitted to the Bar, and was appointed Prothonotary of Quebec. Having subsequently entered into practice, he rose rapidly in his profession, and received the honor of Queen's Counsel. In 1820 he was elevated to the Bench of the district of Montreal as a Puisné Judge. In April, 1839, upon the death of Chief Justice O'Sullivan, he became President of the Court, but increased years and infirmities compelled him to retire in June, 1842. Judge Pyke was universally respected for his upright principles and pains-taking labors as a Judge, and as universally beloved for his kindness of disposition as a man.

At Boston, Hon. BENJAMIN W. CROWNINSHIELD, aged 77. Mr. C. was a prominent leader of the old democratic party, and he was appointed Secretary of the Navy in 1814, by President Madison. He held this office until 1818, when he resigned. On the re-organization of the democratic party for the election of Gen. Jackson, he sided with the party who supported John Q. Adams, and adhered to the whig party ever afterwards. He was chosen a member of Congress for the Essex South District of Massachusetts, in 1823, and he continued to hold the office by re-election till 1831, when he retired to private life. He was repeatedly a member of the State Legislature, and although he could not be called a man of brilliant talents, he secured public confidence in every station which he filled. His death was very sudden, and is supposed to have proceeded from disease of the heart.

In Liberty Co., Georgia, Rev. WILLIAM MCWHIR, D.D., aged 92, a Presbyterian clergyman. He was an Irishman by birth, and about 1783 settled at Alexandria, Va., where he taught a school. He was often an inmate of Gen. Washington's house at Mount Vernon, and was also the instructor of two of the General's nephews. His name has long been associated with public instruction in Georgia.

10th. At Baltimore, Md., Hon. GEORGE R. RICHARDSON, Attorney General of the State of Maryland.

15th. At New York, after a very brief illness, Hon. AUGUSTE DAVEZAC, aged 70. Major Davezac was the son of a rich planter of St. Domingo, where he was born in 1780. He received a military education in France, and when the family fled from the negro insurrection to the United States, he studied medicine in North Carolina, and practiced some time in Accomac Co., Va., where he married. He afterwards removed to New Orleans, where he

studied law with Edward Livingston, who married his sister. He became a famous pleader in criminal cases, and it is said that no client whom he defended was ever hanged. During the last war with Great Britain, he served under Gen. Jackson through the New Orleans campaign. In 1831 he was appointed *Chargé d'Affaires* to Holland, where he remained in that capacity for some time. In 1841 and 1843 he was a member of the New York Legislature, and, during Mr. Polk's administration, he was again sent as *Chargé* to Holland, from which country he returned only about a month before his death. Major Davezac had an active and well-stored mind, and excelled both in conversation and in public speaking. His temperament was ardent; but his disposition was remarkably amiable, and many of his political opponents were his warm personal friends.

19th. At Rockaway, N. J., NANCY GORDON, aged 90, wife of David Gordon. She was married in 1781, and, with a brief exception, lived in sight of Rockaway Church ever since. The descendants of the marriage have been 9 children, 49 grandchildren, 103 great grand-children, and 2 great great grand-children, making a total of 163, of whom 114 still survive.

At Washington, D. C., Major RICHARD POLLARD, of Albemarle Co., Va., formerly *Chargé d'Affaires* to the Republic of Chili.

20th. At Jefferson City, Mo., WILLIAM G. MINOR, aged 45, Secretary of the State Senate and Adjutant General. Gen. Minor was a native of Virginia, and emigrated to Missouri in 1840. He was one of the Commissioners to survey the northern boundary line of the State, and for the greater part of the last eleven years, he was editor of the "*Jefferson Inquirer*." His attainments as a scholar, his powers as a public speaker, and his attractive conversational qualities, rendered him a general favorite.

At Washington, D. C., THOMAS H. GILLIS, aged 83. Mr. G. was born in Somerset Co., Maryland, in December, 1768. In 1798, he was appointed Chief Clerk to the Navy Accountant, as he was then called, now the Fourth Auditor of the Treasury. He removed to Washington with the Government in 1800, and continued to fill the same office till June, 1850, when the infirmities of age compelled him to resign.

At Montreal, Canada East, MR. WILLIAM MAITLAND, aged 96, the oldest merchant in that city. He was a native of Montrose, in Scotland, and came to Montreal in 1775, when it was a small town containing three or four thousand inhabitants. Mr. Maitland was at first very successful in business; but about 1826,

some unsuccessful speculations rendered the firm of which he was a member insolvent, and one of the creditors had him incarcerated, but so strong was the sympathy for him, on account of his great age and upright conduct, that the Legislature of Lower Canada passed an act, especially designed for his benefit, that no debtor over seventy years of age should be imprisoned.

MARCH.

3*d*. In Virginia, aged 87, Hon. FRANCIS J. BROOKE, for thirty years Judge of the Court of Appeals of Virginia. He was born at Smithfield, near Fredericksburg, on the 27th August, 1763; and in 1780 he was appointed a First Lieutenant in Gen. Harrison's Regiment of Artillery. His first campaign was under Lafayette in 1781; and he afterwards joined the southern army under Gen. Greene. On the close of the war, he returned to his native State, and studied medicine for a year. Afterwards, by the advice of his brother Robert, he turned his attention to law, and was admitted to the bar in 1788. He practised for some time at Northern Neck, with Bushrod Washington, who was afterwards Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States. He was successively member of the House of Delegates and the Senate of Virginia. He was elected Judge of the Court of Appeals in 1811, and was President of that court for eight years. He was re-elected to the same office in 1831, under the revised Constitution of the State, and held the office till the time of his death.

6*th*. At St. Louis, Mo., Capt. HENRY W. SHREVE, for nearly forty years connected with the commerce of the West. During the administrations of J. Q. Adams, Jackson and Van Buren, he was United States Superintendent of Western River Improvements. He started flat-boats in 1808, and continued in the business until 1814, when he took charge of a steamboat, and proceeded with her from Pittsburg to New Orleans, performing the passage in fourteen days. He was the first that ever accomplished an upward trip, although two steamers had sailed down the Mississippi before him. He contributed much to the safety of commerce on the western waters by the invention of the steam snag-boat; and he was the means of destroying the Fulton and Livingston monopoly. He served under Gen. Jackson in the New Orleans campaign in 1814 and '15; and he manned one of the field-pieces which destroyed the advancing column under Gen. Kean, in the battle of the 8th of January. He also did good service by conveying troops and supplies with his steamer to the relief of Fort St. Philip.

9th. At San Antonio, Texas, Brevet Major General GEORGE M. BROOKE. Gen. B. was a native of Virginia, and entered the army in May, 1808, as First Lieutenant of the Fifth Regiment of Infantry; he rose through the various grades until he became Colonel of that corps in 1821. He served with credit during the last war with Britain, and greatly distinguished himself in the defence of Fort Erie. Fort Brooke, at Tampa Bay, was established by him in 1824, and he was stationed there for several years. He distinguished himself during the Mexican War, and was breveted as Major General in May, 1848, for his meritorious conduct in that war. At the time of his death, he commanded the Eighth or Texan Military Department of the United States.

10th. At the Novitiate, Frederick, Md., Rev. JOSEPH COOLIDGE SHAW, aged 30. He was a native of Boston, and graduated at Cambridge in 1840. He immediately afterwards went to Germany and other parts of Europe, where he devoted some time to further study. While at Rome he became a Catholic, and studied Theology. He then returned home and studied law for about a year; but afterwards went back to Rome, and resumed his Theological studies. When he had finished the curriculum, he came to Boston a second time, and was ordained a Priest by Bishop Fitzpatrick. He continued to officiate in that capacity till his death.

11th. In Sumpter District, South Carolina, Hon. GEORGE McDUFFIE, aged about 60, Ex-Governor of South Carolina. Mr. McDuffie was of Scottish descent, and born in Georgia. In his boyhood he was employed in a store at Augusta, Ga., by Mr. James Calhoun, a brother of John C. Calhoun. This gentleman, being in embarrassed circumstances, gave up business, and removed to Abbeville, his native district. But he recommended young McDuffie to his brother William as a poor boy of extraordinary abilities, who was very anxious to obtain an education. Mr. William Calhoun accordingly took him into his family and had him well educated. He graduated at South Carolina College with the highest honors.

Soon after leaving college he became conspicuous for his political contributions to the press, in which he advocated the same views as Mr. Calhoun, who was then in favor of a protective tariff. But he afterwards changed his views on this subject.

In 1821, Mr. McDuffie was appointed member of Congress from the Edgefield District of South Carolina. Soon afterwards he became involved in a quarrel with Col. Cumming, of Augusta, on account of political differences, the latter supporting Mr. Wm. H. Crawford for President, while Mr. McDuffie and the South Carolinians supported Mr. Calhoun. This led to two duels between the par-

ties. In the first no blood was shed, and the affair was caricatured as a sham. They were, therefore, induced to fight a second time, when Mr. McDuffie received a wound under the effects of which he suffered during the rest of his life.

In Congress, of which Mr. McDuffie continued a member for fourteen years, he became an active and leading member. When Mr. Adams was chosen President by the House of Representatives, he sided with Mr. Calhoun and others in maintaining that the Houses were constitutionally bound to vote for the candidate who had the highest number of votes. But the majority of the House thought otherwise, and elected Mr. Adams, although Gen. Jackson had the greatest number of votes in the electoral colleges. This proceeding led to proposed amendments to the Constitution, taking the election from the House of Representatives and giving it to electors from the various districts. Mr. McDuffie strenuously supported the amendments; but they miscarried.

In the Congress which met in 1827, the friends of Gen. Jackson had a majority, and Mr. McDuffie took a prominent part as a debater, and he was one of the leaders in the movement which made Jackson President, and his friend Mr. Calhoun Vice-President. But both he and Mr. Calhoun took sides against Jackson in his opposition to the Bank of the United States. Mr. McDuffie, as Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, reported in favor of renewing the bank charter; and he defended this report, and the policy of the bank, in several able speeches. But Gen. Jackson vetoed the bill for a renewal of the charter.

Mr. McDuffie sided with the nullification doctrines then prevalent in South Carolina; but he supported the compromise tariff of Mr. Clay.

Having been elected Governor of South Carolina, by the legislature of that State, he resigned his seat in Congress, and served during the regular term of two years. In 1842, he was elected U. S. Senator from South Carolina, and served for six years, when continued indisposition obliged him to resign. His feeble health did not allow him to take such a prominent part in the business of the Senate as he had formerly done in the House. But he exerted himself in favor of the annexation of Texas, the tariff of 1846, and the sub-treasury act. After leaving Congress, he took no part in public affairs.

Mr. McDuffie was one of the ablest and most distinguished public men of his State, whose peculiar views and institutions he strenuously and eloquently defended; and latterly he was a strong advocate for free trade.

In early life he was a clergyman ; but feeble health obliged him to relinquish that profession, and he became a merchant. He was successively member of the two branches of the legislature of his native State, and was Comptroller for two years.

At Indianapolis, Ind., GEORGE A. CHAPMAN, aged 44. He was one of the original proprietors of the "*Indianapolis State Sentinel*," and was one of the most prominent and popular democratic editors in the West.

21st. At Baltimore, Md., JOHN H. SKINNER, aged 63, the editor of "*The Plough, the Loom, and the Anvil*." His death was caused by an accidental fall through a trap-door at the office of the "*Baltimore Post*," which fractured the skull, and produced contusion of the brain.

Mr. Skinner was a native of Prince George County, Md., and of a highly respectable family. In his early manhood he was for some years a Purser in the U. S. Navy. During the last war with Great Britain he visited the British fleet in the Chesapeake with a flag of truce, in company with his friend Francis S. Key, and was on board the admiral's ship during the bombardment of Ft. McHenry, an event which prompted to Mr. Key that noble lyric, the "Star Spangled Banner." After the war, he resigned his post in the Navy, and devoted himself to agricultural pursuits. He established, in 1817, at Baltimore, the "*American Farmer*," the first agricultural journal published in America, which he published for many years with distinguished ability and great usefulness.

Mr. Skinner was Postmaster of Baltimore for twenty years. He was Assistant Postmaster-General under Gen. Harrison and Mr. Tyler, and performed the duties of his office with great satisfaction to the Government. After retiring from that post, he removed to New York, and established the "*Journal of Agriculture*," which was published for two years by Greeley and McElrath. In 1849 he went to Philadelphia and commenced the publication of "*The Plough, the Loom, and the Anvil*," a monthly journal devoted to the agricultural and manufacturing interests of the country, to which he had resolved to devote his life. He was one of the most useful men in the country, and his loss cannot but be regarded as a public one. For several years past, he labored with untiring energy in the cause of Commerce, Agriculture and Manufactures ; and his Magazine had just obtained a circulation and an influence calculated to make it profitable. In private life his character was very estimable, and he has left behind him a numerous circle of devoted friends.

22d. At New York, MORDECAI MANASSEH NOAH, aged 67,

the well-known editor. Major Noah was the son of Manuel Noah and Zipporah Phillips of that city; and at the age of five he was left to the care of his maternal uncle, Jonas Phillips. He received only a common English education, and was apprenticed to a carver and gilder; but he soon gave up this trade, and devoted himself to literary and political pursuits, his first effort being a Fourth of July Oration, delivered in his thirteenth year.

While he was still very young, he removed to Charleston, S. C., where he took an active part in public affairs, and became editor of the *Charleston Gazette*. In 1813, Mr. Madison appointed him U. S. Consul to Tunis; and he sailed from Charleston in May of that year, to assume the duties of that office. But the vessel in which he sailed was captured by a British frigate, and he was carried as a prisoner to England. After being detained several weeks, he was liberated, and allowed to proceed to his original destination. He returned to the United States in 1816, and communicated to the public the results of his observations abroad, in an interesting volume of travels.

Soon after his return he established himself at New York, and assumed the editorial charge of the "*National Advocate*," a democratic journal, of which he and his uncle, Mr. Phillips, were proprietors. He continued in this situation for several years, but as the periodical was not very profitable, and some trouble arose between him and the other proprietor, it was discontinued.

Mr. Noah now established the "*New York Enquirer*," a paper which was subsequently purchased by the proprietors of the "*Morning Courier*," when the two papers were merged in the present "*Courier and Enquirer*."

He afterwards established the "*Evening Star*," in connection with the late Thomas Gill, who was then one of the proprietors and financial managers of the "*Evening Post*." This paper was very successful until Mr. Gill's death; but it afterwards languished and was merged in the "*Times*," under the name of the "*Times and Star*." This movement turned out to be unfavorable; and the proprietors of the "*Commercial Advertiser*" purchased the whole establishment in 1840.

Mr. Noah now published, in connection with Messrs. Dean and Howard, a weekly paper, called "*The Times*," which he continued to edit until shortly before his death.

As an editor, Mr. Noah was very brilliant and graceful, but his neglect of financial details was unfavorable to his success as manager of a daily paper. His death was caused by a stroke of paralysis, the second which he had experienced. He filled the office of Sheriff of the County of New York, had been a Judge of one of the City Courts, and was an Inspector of Customs at the time of his death.

Mr. Noah was of Hebrew descent, and adhered to their peculiar faith through life. He was distinguished for good-humor and liberality, and frequently gave very material assistance to young men who were struggling with difficulties. He was on the best terms with his brethren of the press, among whom it is not known that he possessed a single personal enemy. He was a devoted admirer of the Constitution of the United States, and some of his ablest productions were designed to illustrate its spirit and provisions.

Besides his contributions to the newspaper press, Mr. Noah published various essays and plays, such as "*The Grecian Captive*," "*She would be a Soldier*," "*The Fortress of Sorrento*," &c.

At Washington, D. C., Hon. ISAAC HILL, aged 63, of Concord, N. H. Mr. Hill was born near Cambridge, Mass., on the 6th of April, 1788. His parents removed to Ashburnham in the same State, where they had purchased a small farm, when he was ten years of age. For the next four years, he worked most of the time on the farm, and had little time to attend school. In 1802 he was apprenticed to Mr. Joseph Cushing, now of Baltimore, who then published the "*Amherst Cabinet*," at Amherst, N. H., in order to learn the printing business.

Upon the expiration of his apprenticeship in 1809, he went to Concord, N. H., where he purchased a paper, called "*The American Patriot*," and soon afterwards he issued the first number of a new paper, styled "*The New Hampshire Patriot*." His great industry and abilities rendered this paper remarkably successful. It became the acknowledged organ of the republicans in that part of the country, and the ablest men of that party were constant contributors to its columns. During the last war with Great Britain, it attained a larger circulation than any paper in the interior of New England, and its influence was felt throughout the Eastern States. Mr. Hill continued to be the principal editor for twenty years; and during all that time its influence and circulation were undiminished.

While he held that office, Mr. Hill was chosen a member of the N. H. House of Representatives, and afterwards of the Senate. In 1829 General Jackson appointed him second Comptroller of the U. S. Treasury; and his connection with the Patriot terminated soon afterwards. His nomination as Comptroller was rejected by the Senate in 1830, when he returned to New Hampshire. At the next session of the Legislature of that State, he was elected U. S. Senator by a large majority, and accordingly took his seat in that body on the 4th of March, 1831. In 1836 he was elected Governor of New Hampshire by a very large majority, and he resigned his seat in the Senate to enter on the duties of that office.

He was repeatedly re-elected until 1839, when he retired to private life, after having discharged every public office which he had held to the entire satisfaction of his constituents. But in 1840, Mr. Van Buren appointed him Sub-Treasurer at Boston, under the Independent Treasury Act. He was removed next year, however, when the whigs came into office.

About the same time he established "*Hill's New Hampshire Patriot*," in connection with two of his sons; but in 1847 this paper was united with the old "*Patriot*." During the last ten years, he edited "*The Farmer's Monthly Visitor*," a periodical which was much esteemed by the agriculturists of that part of the Union; and at the same time he was engaged extensively in farming operations.

At Walpole, N. H., ABIEL CHANDLER, aged 73. Mr. Chandler was a native of Concord, N. H., and graduated at Harvard in 1806. He was engaged in business at Boston for many years, as senior partner of the well-known firm of Chandler, Howard & Co. During his life he sustained an irreproachable character, and at his death he disposed of his property in a manner indicative of the philanthropy of his disposition. Having left neither widow nor children, he bequeathed all his property to public and benevolent purposes. He left \$50,000 to Dartmouth College, for the establishment of a scientific school connected with the institution, and made provision for gratuitous instruction to a certain number of indigent and deserving students. The rest of his property he bequeathed to the New Hampshire Asylum for the insane.

At Washington, D. C., Hon. SAMUEL GREENE, formerly Judge of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire, and clerk in the U. S. Treasury Department for the last fifteen years.

23d. In Dauphin County, Penn., Hon. WILLIAM CLARK, formerly Treasurer of the State of Pennsylvania, and afterwards Treasurer of the United States. He was a member of Congress from 1833 to 1837, and was a man of great energy and integrity.

At Eddington, Me., WILLIAM THOMPSON, aged 83, one of the pioneers of Eastern Maine.

24th. At Topsham, Me., BENJAMIN HASEY, aged 79, the oldest lawyer in the State of Maine. He established himself in the practice of the law, at Topsham, nearly forty years ago, and occupied one office, and boarded in the same family during all that time, having lived and died in a state of single blessedness.

At Geneva, N. Y., Major JAMES REES, aged 86, one of the pioneers of Western New York. He settled at Geneva upwards of fifty years ago, and was along with De Witt Clinton and his asso-

ciates, when the survey was made for the Erie Canal. He was deputy Quarter-Master-General under Washington, in the whiskey insurrection; and long afterwards he was postmaster under Gen. Harrison.

At Edenton, N. C., died suddenly of apoplexy, Hon. AUGUSTUS MOORE, a distinguished lawyer, and formerly one of the Judges of the Superior Court of North Carolina.

At Germantown, Penn., Hon. THOMAS BURNSIDE, one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, and a representative in Congress from 1815 to 1819.

26th. At Middletown, Conn., Rev. SAMUEL FARMER JARVIS, D. D., aged 65. Dr. Jarvis was rector of St. Michael's, Bloomingdale, N. Y., from 1811 to 1819, when he became Professor of Biblical Literature, in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which had then been recently organized. He held this office only for a short time, when he was elected rector of St. Paul's Church, at Boston. He removed thither in 1820, and remained there till 1826, when he sailed to Europe. He was abroad for several years, occupied in collecting books, and other materials, for an extensive ecclesiastical history. He returned in 1835, and became rector of Christ Church, Middletown, his native place.

While in that office, he received from the General Convention of 1838 the appointment of *Historiographer of the Church*; and he was requested to prepare an ecclesiastical history, extending from the apostolic age to the organization of the Episcopal Church in this country. But he lived to publish only a chronological introduction, and the first volume. Dr. Jarvis possessed a very large, select library, which was sold at auction in New York, in October, 1851.

29th. At Boston, Mass., JEREMIAH SMITH BOIES, aged 89, an enterprising and successful manufacturer. Mr. Boies graduated at Harvard in 1783, and was the last survivor of his class. He was early connected with the cotton manufacture, which was then in its infancy in the United States; and he was manager and part owner of one of the first large cotton mills in Massachusetts. Under his skilful and persevering efforts the establishment became very successful, although it had to contend with various trying difficulties.

At Natchez, Miss., Hon. GEORGE WINCHESTER, aged 54, a distinguished lawyer, and one of the judges of the higher courts of the State of Mississippi. Judge Winchester was considered the father of the bar in that State, having been settled at Natchez for 32 years,

during which he enjoyed a high reputation as an able jurist, a sagacious statesman and upright man, and a sincere Christian.

30th. At New York, J. SMITH ROGERS, M. D., aged 57, an accomplished physician; and for many years professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy in Trinity College, Hartford.

In Abingdon, Va., Hon. RICHARD COKE, Jr., representative in Congress from the Abingdon district, from 1829 to 1833, and for many years a prominent member of the bar. Mr. Coke possessed great talents, and uncommon energy of character.

MARCH.

At Newton, Sussex Co., N. J., Hon. ROBERT H. McCARTER, aged 57, Judge of the Court of Errors and Appeals of the State of New Jersey.

APRIL.

4th. At Big Flats, Steuben Co., N. Y., WILLIAM STEELE, aged 89, a native of New York city, and a soldier of the Revolution. He entered the continental army in 1778, and took an active part in the war. In 1794, he commanded a troop of New Jersey cavalry, and aided in suppressing the whiskey insurrection in Western Pennsylvania.

5th. At Washington, D. C., after a severe and protracted illness, Commodore ALEXANDER S. WADSWORTH, of the U. S. Navy. He was a native of Maine, and entered the navy in 1804. At the time of his death he was eighth on the roll of captains, had seen much active service, and was generally considered one of the most accomplished officers in the navy.

6th. At Mount Pleasant, Prince George Co., Md., Hon. RANSOM HALLOWAY, member of Congress from the Eighth Congressional District of New York.

At New Bedford, Mass., BENJAMIN T. CONGDON, Esq., for many years publisher of the "*New Bedford Courier*," a paper devoted to the anti-masonic cause. He had filled various offices, both under the State and the general government; and at the time of his death was Registrar of Deeds for the County of Bristol.

8th. At the Convent of Visitation, Georgetown, D. C., the Most Rev. SAMUEL ECCLESTON, aged 50, Roman Catholic Archbishop of Baltimore. We copy the following notice of him from the "*Catholic Expositor*":

"This eminent prelate was born on the 27th June, 1801, in Kent county, Maryland, a few miles from Chestertown. His

grandfather was Sir John Eccleston, who emigrated to this country, from England a few years prior to our struggle for independence. His father, Samuel Eccleston, was a wealthy farmer of Kent county, Maryland, and was distinguished for his highly-cultivated mind and manners. Born of parents who at that time were members of the Protestant Episcopal Church, he attended worship in that denomination until about the age of eleven years, when he was sent as a student to St. Mary's College, Baltimore. In this institution he continued as a day-scholar until his fifteenth year, and, during this early period, displayed shining talents and a peculiar tact for learning. By his sweetness of disposition, amiable deportment, and graceful manners, he secured the friendship and attachment of his fellow-students and professors, as well as all who had the pleasure of his acquaintance. It was the intention of his mother to direct his studies towards the profession of the law. At sixteen years of age he became a boarder in the college. He soon manifested an ardent love of virtue, and other dispositions which in a few years resulted in his study of divinity; in which pursuit, by his assiduity and talent, he advanced so rapidly as to be considered qualified for the order of priesthood at an earlier age than that order is generally conferred.

"Very soon after his ordination he crossed the Atlantic, and visited England, Ireland, and France. He was, however, suddenly recalled to America, (after a sojourn of about two years in Europe,) in consequence of the death of his stepfather, which happened about this time. From abroad he brought back with him a large store of useful knowledge, an ardent zeal in the cause of his religion, and an increased attachment to republican institutions. Upon his return to his native country, he was received with affection by his numerous friends, and in a short time received marks of their esteem and approbation by his elevation first to the Vice-Presidency and subsequently the Presidency of of the flourishing institution in which he had been educated. This office he filled with much honor to himself and advantage to the college for several years.

"The late Archbishop Whitfield becoming infirm from disease, it was thought necessary early in the year 1834 to appoint a co-adjutor, or assistant bishop, in order to lessen the burden of his duties. The choice fell upon Mr. Eccleston, which was no ordinary mark of confidence, when we consider that he had hardly attained his 33d year, and that there were so many others in the diocese whose age, experience, and talents would have qualified them for the situation. Upon the death of the late archbishop, he succeeded *de jure* to the title and honors of the see, on the 14th of September, 1834.

"As a preacher of the word of God, the archbishop had always been regarded as eloquent, graceful, and persuasive, displaying great zeal and piety in all he uttered, and was sure to enlist the undivided attention of his hearers.

"In person he was tall and commanding, and remarkable for his graceful deportment and ease in conversation. No one ever approached him familiarly without being pleased with him, or without an increased respect for his person. His piety was of the highest order. No one could look upon him without being impressed with the idea that he was a true prelate of the church. Ever unostentatious and unassuming, his great aim was to do good to all men, seeking the will of his great Master. His study was to please Him, regardless of the world, which would willingly heap upon him its choicest honors, did he not studiously fly from them."

9th. At Rhinebeck, N. Y., JOHN BRODHEAD BECK, M.D., aged 57, an eminent physician. Dr. Beck graduated at Columbia College in 1813, at the head of his class. He completed his medical studies in 1817, and commenced practising at New York, where he soon became distinguished. In 1826, he was appointed Professor of Materia Medica and Botany in the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons; but some time afterwards he exchanged the chair of Botany, to which Dr. Torrey was appointed, for that of Medical Jurisprudence, which he continued to hold, with that of Materia Medica, till the time of his death.

On board the steamer California, on her passage from Panama to San Francisco, Hon. SAMUEL R. THURSTON, delegate to Congress from Oregon Territory.

12th. At New Haven, Conn., Hon. DAVID DAGGETT, L.L.D., aged 86, late Chief Justice of the State of Connecticut. He was for many years Professor of Law in Yale College.

13th. At Bucksport, Me., Hon. STEPHEN PEABODY, aged 77, formerly Judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Hancock Co.

14th. At Tonawanda, N. Y., DA-O-NE-HO-GA-WEH, aged 70, a chief of the Senecas, generally known among the whites by the name of John Blacksmith. He was a most determined and fearless defender of the rights of his brethren against the encroachments of the "pale face," and his name may be found attached to several important treaties at Washington. He was a zealous opponent of the land speculators, and frequently came in contact with them in courts of justice; and on one or two occasions, actually forced some of them to leave the Indian territory. He was

strictly temperate in his habits, and was regarded by the Six Nations as their greatest chief since the death of Red Jacket.

According to the customs of the red-men, a runner was despatched to the Six Nations, consisting of the Oneidas, Onondagas, Tuscaroras, Mohawks, Cayugas, and Senecas, with intelligence of the death of their great chief. The runner to the Onondaga Nation on approaching the Council House of that tribe, raised the cry of lament, which they immediately heard, as they were assembled in the House at the time. A messenger was despatched to meet the runner, who was still some distance. Upon meeting the runner, the Onondaga, who understood from the peculiar cry that he was the bearer of bad news, addressed him in the Indian language thus: "Let it come forth, that our minds may also droop down." The news was then communicated to the Onondaga, and the two proceeded to the Council House, where a large number of the nation were assembled, and all the particulars of the sad intelligence communicated to them by the runner. A string of black beads, the token of the death of a great chief, which is always carried by the bearer of the mournful news, was then passed from hand to hand round the Council, and other tokens of mourning were exhibited. The occasion was one of great interest, as the chief whose death they were called to lament, was universally beloved and esteemed by the Six Nations over whom he had exercised authority.

15th. At South Berwick, Me., Hon. WILLIAM A. HAYES, aged 67, Judge of Probate for York County in that State. He was born at North Yarmouth, and was left an orphan at an early age. Through his own exertions he acquired an education at Dartmouth College, where he graduated with high honors in 1805. He was admitted to the bar in 1808, and commenced practising at Berwick, where he remained till the time of his death. He was President of the Law Society for upwards of twenty-five years, and Judge of Probate for more than twenty.

Near Nashville, Tennessee, Hon. TERRY H. CAHAL, Chancellor of Middle Tennessee since 1844. The following expression of the sentiments of the Court of which he was an officer, was inserted upon its records:

"WEDNESDAY MORNING, 9 o'clock.

"Terry H. Cahal, a Chancellor of the State of Tennessee, is no more. He died last night at his residence near Nashville, in the early noon of life, and at a moment when his ripe learning, his high character, and his noble and generous bearing, gave promise of much longer usefulness, and of that increased renown which

great abilities, natural goodness of heart, and an inflexible love for truth and justice, never fail to secure.

"In the sudden and untimely departure of this distinguished citizen, society at large mourns the loss of one of its highest and brightest ornaments; but his companions of the bench and the bar, who participated so long in his public and professional labors, and who knew and admired his great abilities, the quick and searching powers of his mind, and his immovable sense of duty, all feel in this sad dispensation that deeper gloom which a thorough and intimate knowledge of his incorruptible worth was so eminently calculated to inspire. While the whole country will do honor to the private virtues of the man, they unite in lamenting a judge whose official merits always commanded their confidence and veneration.

"In a lively sense of these feelings, the court, seconding the sympathies and the desires of the bar, sanctions a record of this tribute of sorrow and applause, and, in token of grief and regard, it is further ordered that the clerk enter this memorial on the minutes, that he address a copy to the family of the deceased, and that the court shall stand adjourned until to-morrow morning at 9 o'clock."

At Detroit, Mich., Brevet Major-General HUGH BRADY, aged 83. He was born in Northumberland Co., Penn., in July, 1768, and entered the army as an Ensign of Infantry in 1792, so that he was the oldest officer on the list. He served under General Wayne in the celebrated Indian campaign after the defeat of St. Clair. He afterwards retired from the army, but re-entered it in 1808, when he received a commission from Mr. Jefferson. He became Colonel of the 22d regiment of Infantry, and distinguished himself at Lundy's Lane and the battle of Chippewah. In the latter action his regiment was almost annihilated, and himself severely wounded.

When the army was reduced, after the war, Colonel Brady was appointed to the command of the 2d regiment of Infantry, which office he held till his death. He was stationed at Detroit since 1825, in command of that military department, and during the late commotions in Canada, he contributed greatly to preserve peace on that frontier.

Gen. Brady received a sword from his native State during the administration of Governor Ritner, as a token of their high sense of his services and general excellence of character. He was remarkably temperate and active in his habits, and preserved a vigorous frame of body to the last.

17th. At Savannah, Georgia, GEORGE SCHLEY, Esq., aged 59,

a prominent citizen and postmaster of that place for twenty-seven years. He was a native of Maryland, but spent most of his life in Georgia. He was a man of very honorable principles and pleasing manners.

At New Orleans, Hon. HENRY ADAMS BULLARD, aged 62. He was born at Groton, Mass., and educated at Harvard University, where he graduated in 1807. He afterwards studied law at Boston and Philadelphia, and also acquired an extensive knowledge of the French, Spanish, German, and Italian languages. At Philadelphia, his knowledge of Spanish procured him the acquaintance of Gen. Toledo, who was then organizing an expedition to revolutionize New Mexico. Mr. Bullard, who had just been admitted to the bar, joined him as aid and military secretary. After passing the winter of 1812 at Nashville, they proceeded in the spring to Nachitoches, which was the starting-point of the expedition. This proved unsuccessful, as the Spanish commander defeated the Republican forces, in a pitched battle near San Antonio.

After suffering severe hardships, Mr. Bullard found his way back to Nachitoches, where he commenced the practice of the law. After having been Judge of the District Court for several years, he was elected to Congress in 1831, and re-elected the next term. He seldom spoke in Congress; but he made an able and elaborate speech on the tariff bill of 1832.

In 1834 he was appointed Judge of the Supreme Court, and held that office till 1846, when he became Secretary of State, and resumed the practice of his profession. The new constitution of 1845 abolished the old judiciary; and none of the members of the former Supreme Court were retained.

In 1847 he was appointed Professor of Civil Law in the Law School of Louisiana, and delivered two courses of lectures. In 1850 he was again elected to Congress in the place of Mr. Conrad who had resigned, in consequence of becoming Secretary of War. On returning home, the fatigue and exposure brought on an illness, of which he died within a few weeks.

21st. At Norfolk, Va., Commodore JAMES BARRON, aged 82, senior officer of the U. S. Navy. He entered the navy when very young, and served under his father, who had command of the armed vessel of Virginia, during the revolutionary war. He afterwards served in the merchant service until the formation of the U. S. Navy in 1798, when he was appointed a lieutenant under Commodore Barry, and served with credit in the brief war against France. Next year he was appointed captain, and went to the Mediterranean under the command of his elder brother,

Commodore Samuel Barron, where he distinguished himself for his nautical skill and scientific seamanship. He served for most of the time till 1807, in which year he commanded the frigate Chesapeake, in her unfortunate encounter with the British frigate Leopard. He was not in active service since that time.

22*d.* At Burlington, Boone Co., Ky., JOHN SHAVER, at the patriarchal age of 116 years.

23*d.* In Berkeley Co., Va., Hon. EDWARD COLSTON, aged 63, a distinguished citizen. Up to the hour of his death, he apparently enjoyed full health and strength. He had just finished a conversation with one of the members of his family, when he fell from his chair and instantly expired. Col. Colston frequently represented his county in the State Legislature, and he was member of Congress from his district from 1817 to 1819. He was a zealous and consistent church member, and eminently useful in every relation of life, both public and private.

24*th.* At Philadelphia, Brevet Major THOMAS B. LENNARD, aged 41, of the corps of Topographical Engineers of the U. S. Army.

30*th.* At Detroit, Mich., Hon. ELIJAH J. ROBERTS, aged about 55. He was a native of Western New York, and bred a printer. While he was still very young he established and edited the "*Western Courier*," in Homer, Cortland Co., N. Y. Next year he was associated with Major Noah, in conducting the "*National Advocate*" at New York. In 1828 he took charge of the Rochester "*Craftsman*," of which he continued editor for several years, during which time he took an active part in opposition to the anti-masonic agitation, which ran high at that time in Western New York. He afterwards removed to Michigan, where he resided till his death. There he held the offices of Adjutant General and Member of the House of Representatives; and at the time of his death, he was a member of the Senate. He discharged the duties of these stations with signal ability and integrity. In politics he belonged to the democratic party, whose views he defended with zeal and talent. In private life he was distinguished for his generosity and courteous demeanor.

MAY.

5*th.* At New York, PHILIP HONE, aged 70, a distinguished philanthropist and politician. Mr. Hone was a native of New York city, and resided there all his life, except during temporary absences in Europe. In early life, along with his brother John,

he conducted an auction-house, which transacted an immense amount of business, and was well known throughout the United States. Satisfied with what he considered a competency, he withdrew from business at a comparatively early age.

In 1826 he was chosen mayor of New York, and discharged the duties of that office with much zeal and ability. He was a member of various benevolent and literary institutions, for whose prosperity he exerted himself to the utmost. He was one of the principal founders and friends of the Mercantile Library Association of New York, and a marble bust of him, executed at the request of the Society, adorns their library.

Mr. Hone strenuously supported the policy of De Witt Clinton, with respect to the Erie Canal and internal navigation. Among several important offices which he filled, we may mention that he was President of the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, trustee of Columbia College, and President of the first Savings' Bank in New York. After the accession of General Taylor, he was appointed Naval Officer of the port of New York, and held that office till the time of his death. He was distinguished for his extensive liberality, social disposition, ready wit, and uncommon intelligence.

7th. At Boston, BARNUM FIELD, master of the Franklin School. He graduated at Brown University in 1821, and soon afterwards established the "*Independent Inquirer*," at Providence, of which he and Doctor Randall were joint editors. When that paper was merged in the "*Journal*," he continued for some time in the printing business in that city. He then removed to Boston, where he became a teacher, and for twenty-five years labored in the cause of public education with distinguished skill, fidelity, and success.

8th. At Baltimore, Md., Hon. NICHOLAS BRICE, aged 80, for thirty-four years Judge, and at the time of his death Senior and Chief Judge of Baltimore City Court.

9th. At his residence in Lauderdale Co., Alabama, HUGH McVAY, aged 84, for thirty years in high public offices in that State. He was connected with its Legislature from the time that it organized into a territory, either as member of the Legislature or Governor.

13th. At Baltimore, Md., Gen. WILLIAM H. MARRIOTT, Collector of the port of Baltimore under Mr. Polk.

15th. At the city of Mexico, Gen. HERRERA, formerly President of the Republic of Mexico.

At Claysville, Ky., IMMANUEL COME, a colored man, aged 121 years.

At Philadelphia, SAMUEL GEORGE MORTON, M.D., aged 52, the celebrated physician and craniologist. The following account of him is from a Memoir read to the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences by Dr. Charles D. Meigs, who was intimately acquainted with Dr. Morton:

"Samuel George Morton was born in Philadelphia on the 26th of January, 1799. His father was a native of Ireland, and died when the subject of this memoir was only six months old. His mother was a Philadelphian by birth. After her husband's death, she removed to West Farms, near the City of New York, and joined the Society of Friends, into which, at her request, her children also were admitted. In 1817 he lost his mother, which occasioned him the deepest grief, as he was most ardently attached to her. In the autumn of the same year, he accidentally got possession of a copy of Dr. Rush's 'Sixteen Introductory Lectures,' which he read with great delight. His mind was now made up to devote himself to the profession of medicine. He became a student in the office of Dr. Joseph Parrish, and attended medical lectures in the University of Pennsylvania. He received the degree of M.D. in 1820, and was the same year elected a member of the Academy of Natural Sciences, of which he was President at the time of his death. He was not yet satisfied with the medical education which he had received. He therefore sailed for Europe; and on the 20th of October, 1820, entered the University of Edinburgh, where he subsequently graduated.

"In 1826, Dr. Morton commenced practice in Philadelphia. He renewed his connection with the Academy of Natural Sciences, which, at that time, numbered among its members several distinguished names. He soon afterwards wrote a number of scientific essays. That on 'Crania Ægyptiaca' greatly enlarged his reputation abroad, and won the esteem of distinguished scholars. To Professor Silliman's "*American Journal of Science and Art*," he made valuable contributions.

"He early began to make his now celebrated collection of crania, with great labor and toil, and inconvenient cost. He investigated organic remains, and explained problems in Zoology and Ethnology; he published valuable treatises on Consumption, on the Science of Anatomy, and on the Practice of Physic; he served the city gratuitously as physician to the alms-house and hospital; and he delivered courses of lectures in the Pennsylvania Medical College, where he was Professor of Anatomy.

"Unaided and alone, from his own pecuniary resources, which were never abundant, overwhelmed with professional business, often in miserable health and in danger of death, Dr. Morton had, so far back as 1840, collected and arranged a cabinet of 867 human :

crania from many widely-separated regions of the earth; 253 crania of animals; of birds 267; and of reptiles and fishes 81: making 1,468 specimens—the number of which, in the course of the last ten years, has been considerably increased.

“Dr. Morton’s great work, ‘*Crania Americana*,’ was published in 1839, and it was favorably noticed in the leading European scientific publications.”

16th. At New York, EDWARD C. ROSS, L.L.D., aged 51, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the Free Academy of the City of New York. Dr. Ross was a native of the northern parts of Pennsylvania, and graduated with high honor at West Point in 1821. He was in the army till 1839. During this interval, he was employed for ten years as Assistant Professor of Mathematics at West Point, and while in that station he published a translation of the celebrated French treatise on Algebra by Bourdon. He afterwards served through the Florida war against the Indians.

In 1840, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in Kenyon College, Ohio, an office which he filled with much credit, till he was appointed to the situation which he held at the time of his death.

Dr. Ross was possessed of rare attainments as a mathematician, and his amiable disposition endeared him to all who knew him. His death was justly considered a public loss by the Trustees and patrons of the Free Academy.

20th. At Portsmouth, N. H., Hon. SAMUEL CUSHMAN, aged 68, Judge of the Police Court in that city. He had held several public offices in New Hampshire, and was a member of Congress from 1835 to 1839.

26th. At New Haven, Conn., Hon. SIMEON BALDWIN, aged 89, He was born at Norwich, on the 14th of December, 1761, and graduated at Yale College in 1781. In 1783 he was appointed a Tutor in the College, and continued in that situation till 1786, when he was admitted to the bar at New Haven, and commenced the practice of the law. In 1790, he was appointed, by Judge Law, Clerk of the District and Circuit Courts of the United States, and continued to perform the duties of that office, in connection with an extensive professional practice in the State Courts, until the fall of 1803, when he was elected a Representative in the Eighth Congress of the United States. Having attended two sessions of that Congress, he declined a re-election, and resumed his practice at the bar.

In 1806, Mr. Baldwin was appointed by the Legislature an As-

sociate Judge of the Superior Court, and of the Supreme Court of Errors, and continued in that office by annual appointment until 1817, after which he returned for a short period to the bar. In 1822, he was appointed by the General Assembly one of the Commissioners to locate the Farmington Canal, and was made President of that Board. In 1826, he was chosen by his fellow-citizens Mayor of the city of New Haven. Having seen the canal located and completed to Northampton, in 1830, he resigned his office of Commissioner, since which period he has sustained no public office. But ever since his retirement to private life, until within a few years, he was the counsellor and friend of those who sought his advice, and always ready to communicate, from his extensive fund of knowledge and experience, whatever would tend to promote the welfare of the city with which he had been so long identified, and the general comfort and prosperity of his fellow-citizens.

27th. At Raleigh, Shelby Co., Tennessee, Hon. WILLIAM B. TURLEY, Judge of the Memphis Court of Common Law and Chancery. He was transferred, at his own request, eighteen months ago, from the Supreme Court, of which he had been long a member, to the office which he held at his death. He was a profound lawyer; and his brilliant talents, urbanity, and social disposition, commanded the esteem and affection of all who knew him.

At Central Village, Conn., Hon. STEPHEN BRANCH, formerly a prominent politician of Rhode Island.

JUNE.

6th. At Corpus Christi, Texas, Col. G. W. HOCKLEY. He was a native of Philadelphia, and resided some time in Tennessee, whence he removed to Texas in 1835. He commanded the artillery, and acted as Gen. Houston's Aid at the battle of San Jacinto. He was afterwards Secretary of War, under Houston, and Secretary of the Navy during Lamar's administration. In 1843, he went with Col. S. M. Williams as Commissioner to Mexico, to negotiate a treaty which it was thought the government of that country were disposed to make with Texas; but the mission was unsuccessful. After his return, Col. Hockley withdrew from public life.

11th. At Fort Smith, Arkansas, Brevet Brigadier-General MATTHEW ARBUCKLE, aged about 80. He was the son of the gallant officer of the same name, who defeated the Indian chief, Logan, near the mouth of the Kenhawa, before the Revolution. He was

born in Greenbrier County, Va., and entered the army as Ensign about fifty years ago. He served in the last war against Great Britain, and commanded at New Orleans. He also served in the Seminole campaign, under Jackson and Gaines, as Lieut. Colonel. In 1820 he was appointed Colonel of the 7th regiment of Infantry, and in 1830 became Brigadier General by brevet. For more than thirty years he had the command of the 7th military department, of which Fort Gibson is the head-quarters. In that capacity he had to perform duties of the most difficult and delicate character. The numerous powerful tribes of Indians established in that country by the Government, have been kept in the most admirable order by his management, and they have learned to respect the Government whose authority has been represented by one combining so many of the qualities of the good soldier and the honorable, high-minded gentleman. He always possessed their confidence, and wherever he commanded he was a favorite both with those under his command and with the citizens.

15th. At St. Louis, Mo., Hon. BRYAN MULLANPHY, aged 44. Judge Mullanphy filled several important offices within the last twelve years. He had been Judge of the Circuit Court, Director of the Bank of Missouri, and Mayor of St. Louis. He was a man of liberal education, fine talents, and great benevolence, and much of his time, for several years, had been devoted to alleviating the sufferings of the poor. His character, however, exhibited weaknesses which impaired his usefulness, and shaded a life otherwise remarkably pure and excellent.

17th. Near Westport, Mo., Col. LUKE LEA. He was a native of Tennessee, and distinguished himself in the Indian wars in Florida, under Gen. Jackson. He was member of Congress from East Tennessee, from 1833 to 1837, and for thirty years discharged the duties of Cashier of the State Bank and Register of the State Land Office of Tennessee with great fidelity and ability, and his name became prominent in Tennessee for official integrity and devoted patriotism.

In 1849, President Taylor appointed him, without any solicitation, Indian Agent at Fort Leavenworth, in which office he exhibited the same honorable traits which distinguished him elsewhere. He was highly respected and esteemed by the Indians under his charge, as well as by the citizens of Western Missouri. He was killed by a fall from his horse as he was returning from making the usual payments to the Indians.

24th. At Memphis, Tenn., Hon. SPENCER JARNAGIN, U. S. Senator from Tennessee, from 1845 to 1847.

FOREIGN OBITUARY.

NOVEMBER, 1850.

4th. At Lauriston Place, near Edinburgh, ALEXANDER ROSS CARSON, L.L.D. and F.R.S.E., for twenty-five years Rector of the High School of Edinburgh. He had resigned that office in 1845, in consequence of disease of the heart, brought on by indefatigable labor in his station. Dr. Carson was a man of high attainments as a scholar, of a ready and acute intellect, and very successful as a teacher. In private life he was distinguished by an aversion to public display, and a gentle and amiable disposition.

16th. At North Allerton, Eng., GEORGE WOMBWELL, aged 72, the proprietor of a very large and celebrated menagerie. While he was still a youth, he purchased at auction, in London, for £75, a pair of the first boa-constrictors ever seen in England. He realized considerable more than their cost, within three weeks, by their exhibition, a circumstance which, he said, made him partial to the serpent tribe ever afterwards, as it was his first introduction to the "profession;" for he was brought up to the business of cord-wainer.

Wombwell's caravans amounted to upwards of forty, drawn by about 120 horses of the best draught-breed. At the time of his death, he owned five elephants and upwards of twenty lions. His collection of birds and wild beasts was considered unrivalled by any other in Europe owned by a private individual, and he had amassed a handsome fortune.

DECEMBER, 1850.

28th. At Altona, near Hamburg, in his 71st year, FREDERICK SCHUMACHER, the celebrated Astronomer, and for many years editor of the well-known "*Astronomische Nachrichten*" (Astronomical Intelligence). Between 1817 and 1821 he measured, by order of the Danish government, the degrees of longitude from Copenhagen to West Jutland, and the degrees of latitude from the northern extremity of Jutland to the frontiers of Hanover, a work which

was afterwards continued by the astronomer Gauss. He afterwards determined, for the British government, the difference of longitude between the observatories of Altona and that of Greenwich. He was a very careful and accurate practical astronomer.

JANUARY, 1851.

1st. At Berlin, Dr. HENRY FREDERICK LINK, aged 82, Professor of Botany in the University, and author of a treatise entitled "*Elements of Botanical Philosophy*."

6th. At Nanci, in France, Dr. LEURET, a distinguished physician, and author of an able treatise on Anatomy.

At Shooter's Hill, Eng., THOMAS STEPHENS DAVIES, F. R. S., aged 57, Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. Mr. Davies possessed an extensive and varied acquaintance with many branches of science and literature; but it was as a mathematician that he particularly excelled, and his contributions to this science are scattered over most of the mathematical periodicals of Britain since 1817. Between 1841 and 1843, he published an edition of "*Hutton's Mathematics*," with many very important improvements and additions. The last volume was entirely written by Mr. Davies. Among his numerous contributions to periodicals, his "*Researches on Terrestrial Magnetism*," published in the "*Philosophical Transactions*," and his papers on the law of resistance to a projectile, in the "*Mechanics' Magazine*," are worthy of special notice. He sacrificed both health and all pecuniary emoluments to the interests of science; and his labors were so arduous and unremitting that his friends considered him a doomed man for six years before his death. He was also very liberal to all who applied to him, and often assisted neglected and meritorious scholars, without waiting for an application.

17th. At Castle Ashby, Northamptonshire, Eng., the Most Hon. SPENCER J. A. COMPTON, Marquess of Northampton, aged 61. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1810. On the assassination of his relation, Mr. Spencer Perceval, in 1812, he succeeded him as member of Parliament for Northampton. His immediate connections were all of high Tory politics, but he acted according to his own views, and in 1816 he became unpopular with that party for opposing the repeal of the property tax. This course arose from his preferring direct to indirect taxation. He afterwards became connected with Wilberforce, Clarkson, and the rest of the party who opposed the slave-trade. The same association connected him with Sir James Mack-

intosh, as a criminal law reformer. By such means, he outgrew the Tory predilections of his youth.

Between 1815 and 1830 he resided much in Italy; and he actively exerted himself, with others of his countrymen, in behalf of the cruelly persecuted Italian patriots, including Silvio Pellico, Gonfalonieri, and Santa Rosa. The sudden death of his lady, in 1830, led him to return to his native country. She was a woman of superior and highly-cultivated mind, and much beloved by her consort.

The Marquess of Northampton was one of the earliest presidents of the Geological Society of London, which elects a president annually; and in 1838, on the retirement of the Duke of Sussex, he was elected President of the Royal Society, an office which he held till 1849, when he resigned. He was an excellent draughtsman, and a good architect and archæologist. For several years prior to his decease, he was one of the leading members of the Archæological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland. He is the author of several poems, which display good taste and fine feeling. And last, but not least, he was a generous landlord, and received a silver candelabrum from his tenantry in 1840, as a token of their attachment.

At Edinburgh, ALEXANDER MACDONALD, F.S.A., Keeper of the Register of Deeds and Protests for Scotland. He was long one of the most active members of the Scottish Society of Antiquaries, and the library and museum of that body owe much to his industry and intelligence. He also contributed largely to the materials of Sir Walter Scott's "Notes and Illustrations to the Waverly Novels," and assisted extensively in the publication of the "Acts of the Parliament of Scotland," and other works undertaken by the late Record Commissioners. As a private gentleman, his kind and amiable temper will make him be long remembered by all his acquaintances.

FEBRUARY.

1st. At London, MARY WOLLSTONECRAFT, aged 53, widow of Percy Bysshe Shelley. She was the daughter of William Godwin, the Historian, and Mary Wollstonecraft, author of "A Vindication of the Rights of Woman." She married Shelley in 1818, and was left a widow by his death in 1822, when she was only twenty years of age. She had already produced her romance of "Frankenstein," which is remarkable for its unearthly horrors. After her husband's death, she produced several novels, of which "The Last Man" is the only one that obtained even any temporary rep-

utation. She was also the authoress of the biographies of foreign artists and men of letters in "Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia." All her productions are marked by great elegance of tone; but they present an unnaturally dark view of life, and sicken with excess of a morbid sensibility, so that they are now neglected.

5th. At Guilford, Eng., Rev. JOHN PYE SMITH, D.D., L.L.D. and F.R.S., in his 77th year, late Principal of the Independent College at Homerton. Dr. J. P. Smith was a native of Sheffield, where his father was a bookseller. He was engaged during the greater part of his life in college tuition, in which he was eminently successful. He was the author of several able works, mostly on religious topics. His controversial writings are distinguished by their candor; and all his publications exhibit a clear, elegant style, and close reasoning. The following enumeration includes his most important works:

1. "The Scripture Testimony to the Messiah," fourth edition, 1847, 2 vols. 8vo. This is reckoned one of the ablest controversial works on the subject that has ever appeared.

2. "Four Discourses on the Sacrifice and Priesthood of Jesus Christ, and the Atonement and Redemption thence accruing," third edition, 1847.

3. "On the Relation between the Holy Scriptures and some parts of Geological Science," fourth edition, 1848.

Dr. Smith retired from the Presidency of Homerton College in 1850, partly on account of the establishment of a new college, designed to supersede several of the old dissenting colleges, and partly from his declining health. On that occasion, £3,000 were subscribed to provide an annuity for him, during the rest of his life. He was as much distinguished by the excellence of his private character as by his abilities as an author and a teacher.

8th. At Footscray Place, Kent, England, the Right Hon. NICHOLAS VANSITTART, Lord Bexley, aged 44, President of the British and Foreign Bible Society. He graduated at Oxford in 1791, and was soon afterwards called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, where he became a bencher in 1812. He early distinguished himself by various financial and political pamphlets, which gave him great reputation as a financier; and he was elected member of Parliament for Hastings in 1796.

In 1801 he was sent as Minister Plenipotentiary to Denmark, with the view of detaching that country from the Northern Alliance; but as the Crown Prince, who then governed the kingdom in his father's name, declared his determination to remain faithful to his engagements, the negotiation was immediately broken off. He afterwards filled various public offices of trust until 1812,

when he succeeded Mr. Perceval as Chancellor of the Exchequer, an office which he held till 1823, and in which he is charged with complying too readily with the arbitrary and oppressive measures of Lord Liverpool's administration. He also published several political pamphlets, which are now in a great measure forgotten. As a public speaker he never excelled; and in this capacity, as well as in that of author, his opponents charged him with wilful mystification, while his friends maintained that he was only too profound for those he addressed.

On retiring from the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Vansittart was ennobled, under the title of Baron Bexley, and appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, which office, with a seat in the cabinet, he held till 1828, when he retired from public life. He, however, enjoyed a pension of £3,000 till his death.

Lord Bexley was a constant supporter of all the great religious and charitable societies of London; and he regularly presided at the annual meetings of the British and Foreign Bible Society for many years.

11*th*. At Leith, Scotland, GEORGE THOMPSON, aged 92, celebrated as the correspondent of the poet Burns. His collection of Scottish Songs, for which many of Burns' finest pieces were originally written, has been favorably known for nearly sixty years, and his letters are generally given with those of that poet.

* 19*th*. At Berlin, M. JACOBI, well known for his labors in Chemistry and Physiology.

At Teheran, in Persia, Major General Sir L. BETHUNE, K.L.S., aged 64. He was a native of Fife, in Scotland, and entered the E. I. Company's service in 1804, which he left in 1822, with the rank of Major General. He afterwards became a General in the service of the King of Persia; and the Shah conferred on him the order of the Lion and Sun of the first class. He was fully seven feet high; and partly on this account and partly for his bravery, he was styled by the Persians "the great English soldier."

22*d*. At Hempstead, Eng., Miss JOANNA BAILLIE, aged 89, the celebrated authoress. She was the daughter of a Scotch clergyman, and was born at Bothwell, near Glasgow. She removed early in life, with her sister Agnes, to London, where her brother, Sir Matthew Baillie, was settled as a physician. Here she published several plays, which were highly commended by Sir Walter Scott, who was a great admirer of Miss Baillie's writings. But it is said by good judges that her plays were such only in name, that they are poems in effect, marked by much originality, and great

power in delineating character. Her female portraits are particularly beautiful. But her dramatic situations are few and ineffective, and the catastrophe of her plots is apparent from the outset; and these defects account for their limited success on the stage, notwithstanding their great and varied merits.

In 1823, she published a collection of poetic miscellanies, containing some pieces by Scott and Mrs. Hemans, and a complete edition of her dramatic works appeared a few months before her death.

Miss Baillie always lived in retirement, and latterly in strict seclusion. She was gentle and unassuming, with a remarkable simplicity of character. To the poor she was always very charitable and attentive; and the numerous visits which she received from distinguished friends and admirers, both from the European continent and America, as well as from the British Isles, never diverted her from her labors in their behalf. She retained her faculties to the last.

27th. At Munich, Bavaria, FREDERIC XAVIER FERNBACH, inventor of the style of encaustic painting that bears his name.

At Brighton, Eng., DOST SAKÉ DEEN MAHOMED, aged 92. He was a native of Patna, in Hindoostan. In early life he attended an officer named Baker, in the East India Company's service, and was present in many engagements. In 1784, he came to England, and accompanied Capt. Baker, the brother of his former master, to Cork, where he was placed in a school to learn English. In 1794, his "Travels of Deen Mahomed," consisting of a series of letters written to a friend, were published at Cork, in two 12mo volumes, and had an extensive sale.

While he lived at Cork, he induced a pretty Irish girl of respectable parentage, to elope with him; and they ultimately settled at Brighton, where he conducted vapor baths and the shampooing system with great success, and much benefit to many who applied to him.

Mahomed was a kind-hearted man, as well as a person of remarkable talents. He enjoyed uninterrupted good health, and the perfect use of his faculties, almost to the last hour of his life, and died apparently of old age, although he drooped a little after the death of his wife, who died only two months before him.

28th. At Paris, Marshal DODE DE LA BRUNIERE, aged 77. He served in the wars of Napoleon, and attained the rank of Lieutenant General, having been present in most of the great battles of the empire. Latterly he was a great favorite with Louis Philippe, who made him a marshal of France, and employed him in direct-

ing the fortifications of Paris, by means of which that sovereign vainly hoped to prevent the catastrophe which befell him in 1848.

At Umballa, India, JOSEPH DOWEY CUNNINGHAM, aged 39, Captain in the E. I. Company's Engineers, and eldest son of the late Allan Cunningham, the well-known poet and biographer. He lived eight years (from 1837 to 1845) as political assistant among the Sikhs, whose "History" by him appeared in 1849. Soon afterwards, the company removed him from his post of political agent at Bhopal, on a charge of having made unauthorized use of official documents in his work. To the effect produced by this act on his sensitive nature, the family attribute his premature death. He considered that he had been sufficiently authorized to use the documents in question as he did, and, therefore, keenly felt the stigma implied in his removal.

Near Hamburg, Viscount FREDERIC ADOLPHE DE GARDENVILLE, aged 113, a soldier in the guards of Louis XV., and a knight of the order of St. Louis.

MARCH.

2d. At Islington, England, WILLIAM HODGSON, M. D., aged 106. In early life he embraced the ultra-liberal political sentiments then prevalent in France, in consequence of which he suffered imprisonment for many years. At this period, Franklin and Bolivar were among his warmest friends. As age came on he abandoned the stormy sea of politics for the quieter pursuits of literature and science, and he published a French Grammar, which passed through many editions. He also published a voluminous "Life of Napoleon," when he was nearly one hundred years of age; and at the time of his death, he was engaged in compiling a derivative and terminal dictionary. He had all the manners of a gentleman of the "old school," and had many warm friends, who delighted in his instructive conversation. He possessed his faculties perfectly up to the time of his decease, and died at last of bronchitis.

4th. At Unguruta, in the Kingdom of Bornou, Central Africa, JAMES RICHARDSON, a celebrated traveller, while engaged in exploring those unknown regions.

14th. At Berlin, FERDINAND GOTHIEL HAND, aged 65, for many years professor of Greek in the University of Jena, and a profound philologist.

17th. At Copenhagen, HANS CHRISTIAN ØRSTED, aged 64, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of that city.

In November, 1800, Ørsted was appointed assistant in chemistry to the faculty of medicine of the University of Copenhagen, at which he had already passed the usual course.

So early as 1803, he published, in German, "Researches into the Identity of Electrical and Chemical Forces." In 1807, the idea occurred to him that electricity and magnetism had some affinity, and he proposed to try whether electricity, the most latent, had any action on the magnet. The idea was not lost sight of; but, for the next twelve years, no experiment was made to establish it as a fact.

Ørsted was busily engaged, during that period, writing, traveling, lecturing, and establishing a system of chemistry, so that it was not until the winter of 1819 that he was enabled, by positive experiment, to convince the world that his long-followed theory was a scientific truth. In 1820, he made known the fact that a magnetized needle, placed near a wire connecting the poles of a galvanic pile, is forced to change its direction, and, always when the current is sufficiently strong, that the needle takes a position at right angles to the wire; that if the wire were sunk on either side of the needle so as to come into the horizontal plane in which the needle is allowed to move, there is no motion of the needle in that plane, but that it manifestly attempts to move in a vertical circle, and that whenever the direction or the current along the wire is reversed, the needle makes half a revolution, and reverses the direction of its poles so as still to keep at right angles to the wire. Ørsted showed that these results proved that the movements of the needle are in a circle round the wire.

But Ørsted also engaged in experiments of an entirely different character. In 1822 he contrived a very ingenious instrument for measuring the compression of water. In 1826 he instituted a set of experiments on the compression of gases, which resulted in establishing, under the highest degrees of pressure, Mariotti's law—hitherto proved only under small degrees of pressure—that all kinds of gases, under all degrees of pressure in which they retain their æriform state, are uniformly compressible.

In 1850, Ørsted published, at Copenhagen, a work entitled "The Spirit in Nature, being a Popular Contribution towards Illustrating the Spiritual Influence of Nature;" and, in 1851, a second edition of the first part was published.

At Edinburgh, CHARLES KIRKPATRICK SHARPE, M. A., for nearly half a century a distinguished member of the literary circles of that city. He was the author of "Metrical Legends," which appeared in 1807, and ten years afterwards he published an edition of "Kirkton's Secret and True History of the Church of Scotland,"

with notes, whose piquancy contrasted strangely with the Covenanter gravity of the text. He was well versed in Scottish antiquities, and his collection was among the richest ever accumulated by any private person in that kingdom.

21st. At Paris, JULES MARTIEN, the author of "Christianity in America."

30th. At Edinburgh, in his 75th year, SIR JAMES WELLWOOD MONCRIEFF, a Lord of Session, and Senator of the College of Justice. He was distinguished for extensive and sound legal knowledge, acuteness, good judgment, and indefatigable industry. He was the second son of the Rev. Sir Henry W. Moncrieff, a very eminent divine of the Church of Scotland, and had been a Judge of the Supreme Court for twenty-one years.

At Rome, FATHER ROZAVEN, aged 82, a famous Jesuit.

APRIL.

3d. Near Edinburgh, in his 53d year, the Rev. JAMES SEATON REID, D. D., Professor of Ecclesiastical and Civil History in the University of Glasgow. He was formerly minister of the Presbyterian Church at Carrick-fergus, in the north of Ireland, and while settled there he commenced his "History of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland," of which the first volume appeared in 1834, and the second in 1837. The third volume, which was designed to bring the work down to the present times, was never published, probably in consequence of more pressing engagements.

8th. At London, JOHN PARRY, aged 75, a celebrated poet and musician. He was a native of Denbigh, in Wales, but took up his residence at London in 1807. He was the author of the favorite song of "Jenny Jones," and several others. He was much esteemed in all circles, from royalty downwards, and celebrated for his kindheartedness and unaffected simplicity of manners.

11th. At Berlin, PRINCE WITTGENSTEIN, aged 81, a celebrated statesman, and a minister of the Prussian government since 1819.

At Glasgow, Capt. CHARLES GRAY, R.M., aged 68, a celebrated composer of Scotch songs. He served in the royal navy upwards of thirty years, and retired on full pay. He was the author of two volumes of Scottish songs, several of which are very popular. Of Robert Burns he knew more than most of that poet's biographers; and a critical examination of their productions occupied him at the time of his death.

18th. At Tunbridge Wells, Eng., in his 68th year, the Right

Hon. HENRY BICKERSTETH, Lord Langdale. He was born at Kirby Lonsdale, in Westmoreland, 18th June, 1783, and was originally destined for the medical profession, in which he completed his studies with success, and travelled on the Continent with the family of the late Earl of Oxford. On his return, induced by the advice of friends, who appreciated his talents, to embark on the more ambitious career in which he eventually attained distinction, he entered Caius College, Cambridge, and there graduated as Senior Wrangler, in 1808. Three years after, he was called to the bar by the Society of the Inner Temple, and soon rose to eminence in the Equity branch of his profession. In course of years he became a Bencher of his Inn, was made a Queen's Counsel, and ranked in the very first grade of Chancery practitioners. Eventually, in 1836, he succeeded Lord Cottenham as Master of the Rolls, and was at the same time created Baron Langdale, of Langdale, in Westmoreland. Throughout the whole course of his life, this upright and able lawyer was ardently devoted to the liberal cause; and although he seldom appeared in the arena of politics, no man pursued with greater enthusiasm the work of general as well as legal reform. His famous speech on the administration of justice in the Court of Chancery and on the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords, will long be remembered, and referred to as an authority on the subject to which it refers. As a Judge, Lord Langdale brought to his high office personal dignity, unsullied reputation, and vast legal knowledge; and he discharged its functions, for fifteen years of indefatigable labor, with the highest honor, and with subservience to none but the loftiest motives of action.

The office of Lord High Chancellor was repeatedly offered to him when Lord Cottenham was appointed in 1846; but his feeble state of health induced him to decline the proffered honor.

29th. At Pietra Santa, in the Duchy of Lucca, Italy, the Right Hon. CHARLES CHRISTOPHER PEPYS, aged 70, Earl of Cottenham, late Lord Chancellor of England. He graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1803, and was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn next year. His progress was at first very slow; for he was twenty-two years at the bar before he attained the rank of King's Counsel. In 1834 he became Solicitor General, and soon afterwards Master of the Rolls. In April, 1835, he was appointed one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal. He had been elected member of Parliament for High Ferrars in 1831, through the interest of Earl Fitz-William; and he afterwards represented the borough of Malton.

Owing to the admirable manner in which he presided in the Court of Chancery, he was appointed Lord Chancellor early in

1836, and held the office with great credit to himself till the Tories came into power in September, 1841, when he made way for Lord Lyndhurst. He had been knighted when he was appointed King's Counsel in 1826, and elevated to the peerage when he became Chancellor. When the Whigs returned to office in 1846, he again became Chancellor. But the declining state of his health incapacitated him from regular attendance in Court. So he resigned, and the great seal was put in commission in June, 1850. He then went abroad, in the vain hope of improving his health.

Lord Cottenham was remarkable neither for his eloquence nor his success as a practitioner; but no man ever gained greater laurels on the bench; and his decisions are considered precedents of the highest authority. In politics he was a steady and consistent Whig.

At Edinburgh, JAMES A. HALDANE, aged 82, a great promoter of Evangelical Christianity in Scotland. He was born at Dundee, and educated at the High School of Edinburgh, under the celebrated Dr. Adam. He entered the E. I. Company's service as a midshipman in 1785, and in 1794 his thoughts having been seriously directed to religion, he sold out, and retired to private life, while he had every prospect of amassing a large fortune.

In 1796 he accompanied the late Rev. Chas. Simeon, of Cambridge, on a tour through the Highlands, and while they were on the top of Ben Lomond, and impressed with the grandeur of the surrounding scenery, both kneeled down and consecrated their future lives to the service of God. Soon afterwards Mr. Haldane became a preacher, but without being ordained or becoming minister of any fixed congregation; and he preached with much effect in various parts of the country, in connection with Mr. Aikman, a gentleman of independent means, and several others.

His brother Robert had, at an expense of about £30,000, erected or purchased large places of worship in many of the chief cities and towns of Scotland, and James henceforth generally officiated at the one in Edinburgh, although he still performed preaching-tours "in the highways and hedges." In all their undertakings the two brothers acted in harmony; and throughout their course their zeal was never disturbed by one jarring feeling. Their united labors contributed much to improve the religious and moral condition of their native country.

At Berlin, CHRISTIAN FREDERICK TIECK, aged 75, Director of the Sculpture Gallery of the Royal Museum, a celebrated sculptor. He was a brother of the poet Tieck, and was originally a stone-cutter, but raised himself to distinction by his abilities and industry.

MAY.

11th. At Camberwell, Eng., in his 75th year, RICHARD PHILIPS, F.R.S., a celebrated chemist. He was for several years editor of the "Annals of Philosophy," which was subsequently united with the "Philosophical Magazine." In the pages of these periodicals, and the "Transactions of the Royal Society," are found many scientific articles from his pen; and he was author of all the chemical articles in the "*Penny Cyclopaedia*." The improvements in the later editions of the "*London Pharmacopæia*" were mainly due to him; and the first translation of that work was published* by him in 1824.

At Tortola, West Indies, Sir JOHN A. MACGREGOR, aged 40, Governor of the Virgin Isles, and Chief of the Clan Gregor. He assumed the government only seven weeks before his death.

13th. At Munich, in her 63d year, AUGUSTA AMELIA, Duchess of Leuchtenberg, and widow of Eugene, formerly Viceroy of Italy under Napoleon. She was the eldest daughter of Maximilian Joseph, King of Bavaria, and married to Eugene Beauharnois, son of the Empress Josephine by her first husband, in 1806.

15th. At London, Major-General Sir WILLIAM MORISON, K.C.B. & F.R.S., at an advanced age. He was a native of Clackmannan County, in Scotland, and was appointed a cadet in the E. I. Company's service, in 1799. He was afterwards at the head of the Indian commissariat, and in 1811 he undertook a geographical and statistical survey of the Madras territory, Col. MacKenzie, the Surveyor General, having gone as chief engineer in the expedition against Java. He was Commissary General during the Mahratta War of 1817 and 1818, and was subsequently deputed, along with Mr. J. M. Macleod, to administer the government of Mysore. On the change in the constitution of the Indian government in 1834, he was the first military officer selected for a seat in the Supreme Council of India, a position which he held for five years, during which he gained general approbation and good will. He returned to Britain in 1840, and represented his native county in parliament for nine years, always voting with the Whigs.

General Morison was celebrated for his scientific knowledge of military tactics; and to the close of his life took a lively interest in certain improvements in gunnery and small arms of his own invention. His disposition was remarkably social and benevolent.

23d. At Florence, in his 59th year, the Right Hon. RICHARD LALOR SHEIL, British Minister at the Court of Tuscany. He

was born at Dublin, in the year 1793, educated at Trinity College, and at the age of twenty-one called to the Irish bar. In the profession of the law, though he obtained the rank of Queen's Counsel, he never enjoyed a lucrative practice.

Mr. Sheil, instead of an eminent lawyer, became a political agitator, and in the Roman Catholic Association reached a position second only to that of Mr. O'Connell.

The Roman Catholic Relief Bill of 1829, when it became a law, opened to Mr. Sheil a new and more extended sphere of action; he was returned to Parliament for Lord Anglesey's borough of Milbourn Port, and soon became one of the favorite orators of the House. For twenty years he held a prominent place in the House of Commons, though throughout a great portion of that period he represented very insignificant constituencies. From the general election in 1841, till the time of his departure for Florence in 1850, he represented, through the influence of the Duke of Devonshire, the small borough of Dungarvon, always, of course, supporting the most liberal section of the Whigs.

Amongst his first appointments was that of Vice-President of the Board of Trade, in the last Melbourne Ministry, and then he became Judge Advocate General, which office he held only from June to September, 1841. On the return of the present ministers to office in 1846, he was appointed to the office of Master of the Mint, and in November, 1850, went out as British Minister to Florence.

JUNE.

2*d*. In Dorsetshire, Eng., in his 83*d* year, the Right Hon. CROPLEY ASHLEY COOPER, sixth Earl of Shaftesbury. He was for many years member of the House of Commons for Dorchester, till his succession to the peerage raised him to the House of Lords in 1811. Here he was Chairman of Committees for nearly forty years, where he was distinguished by strong common sense, a knowledge of the statute law, and uncompromising impartiality. Only one case is known in which the decisions of "the old earl," as he was called, were reversed by the House. Although his presence was undignified, his speech indistinct and hurried, and his manners hasty and rough, he was popular with the lords, and also with the parliamentary agents.

7*th*. At Edinburgh, Sir JOHN GRAHAM DALYELL, aged 73, President of the Society for promoting Useful Arts, and of the African Institute of Paris. Among his numerous works, the following include those of general interest. 1. "Observations on some interesting Phenomena in Animal Physiology," 1814, 8vo. 2. "An

Essay on the darker Superstitions of Scotland,' 1834, 8vo—a work containing much curious information, rarely found elsewhere. 3. "Rare and Remarkable Animals of Scotland, represented from living Subjects, with Practical Observations on their Nature," 1847, 2 vols. 4to, with more than one hundred colored plates, drawn from life. He was also the author of various articles in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

9th. At Tottenham, Eng., THOMAS WRIGHT HILL, a distinguished advocate of the cause of popular education, and the founder of a celebrated school near Birmingham. The plan of this establishment he described in a work of which the first edition appeared in 1822, entitled, "Public Education,—Plans for the Government and liberal Instruction of Boys in large Numbers." After some time the school was removed to Tottenham, near London, where it is still conducted with much success by his son, Mr. Arthur Hill.

10th. At Melville Castle, Scotland, the Right Hon. ROBERT DUNDAS, Viscount Melville, F.R.S., aged 80, a celebrated statesman and judge. Through the influence of his father, he was returned to the House of Commons for the county of Edinburgh in 1802; and the question of his father's impeachment drew him frequently into debate in 1805 and 1806. When the Duke of Portland became premier in 1807, he appointed Mr. Dundas President of the Board of Control, after which he took a conspicuous part in the parliamentary debates.

In 1809 he succeeded the Duke of Wellington, who was then Sir Arthur Wellesley, as Chief Secretary for Ireland; but he soon after returned to his former office in the Board of Control. The sudden death of his father in 1811, called him to the House of Lords. Under Lord Liverpool's administration, he was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, with a seat in the cabinet. He discharged the duties of that office during the fifteen years that the Liverpool ministry was in power; and his management of the admiralty commanded general approbation. He retired on Mr. Canning's accession to office, but resumed his former place in the admiralty when the Duke of Wellington became premier in 1828. His official career ended with the accession of the Whigs in 1830. He was never distinguished as a public speaker, although he generally spoke to the purpose, and in a way that showed a deep acquaintance with his subject.

14th. At Paris, Princess ALVIRA D'ELVIR, aged 89, of the Mogul race of India. When a child, she fell from a window of the palace of Delhi into the Ganges, and was picked up by some

boatmen, who sold her to the French. These retained her as a hostage, and brought her to Paris. After residing many years in that city, she was recognized; and an embassy was sent to take her back to her native country. But as she had in the meantime become a Christian, she would not return, as in that case she would be required to embrace the Mohammedan faith.

16th. At Wiesbaden, in Germany, General UMINSKI, aged 71, a prominent actor in the last Polish revolution. He was born in the year 1780, in the Grand Duchy of Posen. As early as 1794 he commenced his military career as a volunteer under Kosciuszko. When the Poles were summoned to new efforts for freedom by Dombrowski, in 1806, Uminski was among the first to take up arms. He formed a Polish Guard of Honor for Napoleon, fought at Dantzick, received a wound at Dirschau, where he was taken prisoner and sentenced to death by a Prussian Court Martial. His sentence was not executed, however, as Napoleon threatened reprisals. In the war against Austria he commanded Dombrowski's advanced guard, was made Colonel, and formed the 10th hussar-regiment, which signalised itself at Mosaisk, in 1812, and at whose head he was the first to enter Moscow. In the retreat, he saved the life of Poniatowski.

At the battle of Leipsic, where he acted as Brigadier General, he was again wounded and taken prisoner. After the dissolution of the national army of Poland, he entered into the Polish-Russian service, but soon obtained his discharge, and lived in retirement in Posen, though without intermitting his efforts for the freedom of Poland. In the year 1821 he helped to found a patriotic union, was arrested after the accession of Nicholas I., and in the year 1820 sentenced to six years' imprisonment in the fortress of Glogau. Escaping from this in the year 1821, he went to Warsaw, and took part as a common soldier in the battle of Wavre. The next day he was made General of Division. On the 25th of February he beat Diebitsh at Grodno, and distinguished himself in several other battles. Outlawed and hung in effigy at Kosen, he found an asylum in France. The remainder of his subsequent life he passed in Wiesbaden. Uminski was also known as a writer on military affairs. Those who knew him in the latter years of his exile, speak highly of the sweetness, benevolence, and dignity of his character.

28th. At London, Admiral Sir EDWARD CODRINGTON, G.C.B., aged 81. He entered the navy in 1783, and distinguished himself on various occasions, till the close of the French wars. He commanded the line-of-battle-ship Orion at the celebrated battle of Trafalgar, and received a gold medal for that victory.

In 1826, Admiral Codrington was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Mediterranean squadron, and hoisted his flag in the *Asia*, of eighty-four guns. It was in this capacity that he took the leading part in the great battle of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, when the Turco-Egyptian fleet was destroyed by the combined squadrons of Britain, France and Russia. The *Asia* was hotly engaged in this action; the Admiral himself was struck, and his watch shattered in his pocket. For this service he received various honors. But different opinions prevailed in Britain among politicians on the subject. The Duke of Wellington characterized the battle as "an untoward event;" and some considered that Sir Edward was too much influenced by his prepossessions in favor of the Greeks. He was, therefore, recalled from the Mediterranean in April, 1828. He sat in Parliament for the borough of Devonport, from 1832 to 1840, and steadfastly supported the Whig policy.

Near Paris, in a Lunatic Asylum, NAPOLEON JUNOT, Duc D'Abrantes, son of Marshal Junot, aged 44. The irregularities of his life were such that they could be explained only on the supposition that he had always been partially insane. Yet he possessed great talents; and his poetry, although eccentric, had considerable merit. He published several dramas and romances, and was an excellent musician. He was a good classical scholar, and understood English, Spanish and Italian. Before he became evidently insane, he was employed in translating Shakspeare into French; and it was while he was engaged on *King Lear* that decided symptoms of insanity first appeared.

At Stockholm, Sweden, ANDREW CARLSEN, aged 94, Bishop of Calmar, author of several works on Theology, Language, and Law. He had been long Professor of Greek in the University of Lund.

At Linden, in Germany, Count VON KIELMANSEGGE, aged 83, a distinguished Hanoverian General.

At Aintab, Syria, of fever, Rev. AZARIAH SMITH, M.D., in his 35th year, Missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. He was a man of great abilities and attainments, and distinguished for his devotedness to his missionary labors, in which he was eminently successful. His death was severely felt by the Mission. He was a native of Manlius, N. Y., and studied at Yale College and at Philadelphia. He had been connected with the missions of the American Board in Western Asia for nearly nine years.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY NOTICES.

Relation of the Direction of the Wind to the Moon's Age.—Mr. Airy, Astronomer Royal of England, lately communicated to the Royal Society of London a paper on this subject, containing the result of observations at the Greenwich Observatory, for the seven years ending in December, 1847. Mr. Airy examined the registers, because he had heard, while on a voyage to Shetland, in 1849, allusion made to the belief of Norwegian seamen, that there is always a northerly wind at new moon. The examination was made with great care, and the result directly contradicted the assertion which gave rise to the inquiry.

Course of the Winds.—Lieut. Maury, of the National Observatory, at Washington, has come to the conclusion that the trade-winds, instead of returning towards the pole whence they came, cross the equator, and blow towards the opposite pole. The northern trades, for instance, pass into the Southern Hemisphere, and flow towards the South Pole, while the southern trades cross the equator, and form the south-westerly and south-easterly winds of the Northern Hemisphere. By this means the same particle of air courses over the whole surface of the earth, from pole to pole. Two facts are adduced in proof of this hypothesis:—

1st. The first is, the far greater amount of rain which falls throughout the Northern Hemisphere, while the watery surface, and consequently the amount of evaporation, is decidedly greater in the Southern. If the corresponding latitudes be compared, it will be found that rain is decidedly more scanty, and droughts more frequent and severe in the Southern Hemisphere.

2d. It has been recently ascertained by Professor Ehrenberg, that a peculiar red rain which falls in Barbary, the Canaries, and Spain, owes its color to infusoria which are peculiar to South America.

Lieut. Maury attributes these transferences to magnetic influences: but we cannot see that this explanation is satisfactory. We would be inclined to attribute them rather to the different mechanical properties of the two great currents, produced by different degrees of heat and moisture.

Origin of Salt, and Salt Lakes.—At a recent meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, Prof. H. D. Rogers presented an interesting communication on this subject. He considers that the origin of the salt in the ocean, and of salt lakes, was the chlorides of the volcanic minerals and igneous rocks, which were dissolved by rains and streams, and then conveyed to their present positions. Salt mines were formed by a portion of water being cut off from any connection with the ocean, like the Dead Sea, or the Salt Lake of Utah; and the evaporation proceeding with considerable rapidity, extensive deposits of salt were the result. These were afterwards, in some instances, elevated and laid dry.

The above view is confirmed by the fact, that all detached waters which receive streams and discharge none, are salt, and contain the very ingredients found in the rivers which flow into them. Thus all the elements contained in the Dead Sea, are found in the Jordan at its mouth.

This view leads us to the conclusion that the amount of salt in the ocean and detached seas, must have been slowly accumulating, as the streams were incessantly bringing additional supplies, and none passed off by evaporation, so that the salt waters must once have been nearly fresh. The only diminution now is, that caused by the amount consumed by animals, and especially by man. When the world shall have come to be peopled by 3,000 millions of human beings, the amount of salt withdrawn for their use, must bear a very perceptible proportion to that conveyed into the ocean by all the rivers, the latter quantity being now comparatively small.

The Aurora Borealis.—At the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in August 1850, Prof. D. Olmsted, of Yale College, read a paper containing a new view of this subject. He considers that the aurora has a *cosmical*, and not a *terrestrial* origin, or, in other words, he thinks that it originates from something entirely beyond the atmosphere, and that it is not, as is generally thought, a phenomenon of common electricity. From an extensive comparison of data, he concludes that its height varies from 160 miles or upwards, to an elevation of two or three.

The cosmical origin of the aurora is inferred from its great extent, exceeding what could arise from any terrestrial emanations; and the velocity of its motions, which exceeds anything that can be attributed to terrestrial forces, from the occurrences of the different stages of an aurora at the same hour of the night, in places differing widely in longitude—a fact indicating that the various parts of the earth's surface come successively, as it turns

on its axis, under the origin of the aurora, situated in space—and finally from the periodicity of the exhibitions. The phenomena occur, not only at a certain time of the night (generally between dusk and midnight), but also at certain seasons of the year, most commonly in the fall, especially in November, and very rarely in summer, in June hardly ever. They are further very common for a series of years, and then they become comparatively rare, or entirely disappear for a long period. The former periods Mr. Olmsted denominates *auroral visitations*. These last from twenty to twenty-two years, and occur at intervals of about 65 years, reckoning from the middle of one to the middle of the next.

With respect to the efficient origin of the aurora, it is attributed to a nebulous body, of very light, inflammable, semi-transparent, and magnetic matter, which revolves round the sun. It is probable there are many such collections of nebulous matter revolving round the sun, with various degrees of velocity, and the aurora probably arises from one of these coming occasionally within the sphere of the earth's attraction.

The preceding views indicate a great analogy, as the Professor remarks, between the aurora and meteoric showers, especially what are called the "November Meteors."

Discovery of another Asteroid.—To the numerous Asteroids discovered since 1845, another was added on the 19th of May, 1851, by the discovery of a new one by Mr. Hind of London, the discoverer of Iris, Flora, and Clio.

In reference to the peaceful condition of the world, and the fraternal assemblage of the nations at the World's Fair, Mr. Hind named the stranger *Irene*, (peace,) and assigned as its symbol a dove, with an olive-branch, and a star on the head. Its distance from the Sun is 2.554, (that of the Earth being one,) and its period of revolution 1,491 days. It appears like a star of the ninth magnitude, with a very blue light.

This planet was independently discovered, only four days afterwards, by M. Gasparis, of Naples, the discoverer of Hygeia, Parthenope, and Egeria.

Parallax of the binary star Alpha Centauri.—Observations were made on this star by Mr. Maclear, Astronomer Royal at the Cape of Good Hope, from 1842 to 1848, with a view to determine its annual parallax. The results of his observations were recently transmitted to England; and they agree very nearly with those of the late Professor Henderson of Edinburgh, the latter making it 0.9128 of a second, and Mr. Maclear 0.9187 ± 0.034 of a second. This makes the distance of this star a little over 200,000 times the

radius of the Earth's orbit. It is supposed to be the nearest of all the fixed stars; and yet light, which would move round the whole Earth eight times in one second, would take about $2\frac{1}{2}$ years to reach us from this star.

Change at Greenwich Observatory.—A new meridian instrument has been lately set up at this renowned establishment, which is considered by Mr. Airy, the Astronomer Royal, so superior to the old transit instrument and mural circle that these have been taken down, and placed among the instruments which are no longer in use. The new instrument is made after that of the Armagh observatory, planned by Dr. Robinson, with some modifications.

Water of the Dead Sea.—Dr. Robert J. Graves, in a communication to a recent number of the Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, discusses the cause why this sea contains no fish or seaweed. He attributes it to the immense amount of saline ingredients in its waters, unfitting it for the support of either animal or vegetable life; and he quotes the narratives of Col. Fremont and Mr. Edwin Bryant, to show that the same phenomena are observed in the salt lake of Utah. There is the same absence of organic life in both cases, the same offensive smell, arising from the stagnant waters near the shore, when the wind blows landward, and the same absence of the rippling and sparkling appearance presented by other waters; and the neighborhood of each abounds with warm springs, strongly impregnated with sulphur. Both lakes are equally salt, and contain nearly the same proportion of the various ingredients.

Dr. Graves shows, from Lieut. Lynch's narrative, that the shores of the Dead Sea exhibit various traces of volcanic action, that it is only near the land, and where the water is shallow, that the noisome effluvia are observed, and that its waters are generally perfectly clear and cool, and do not in the least taint the incumbent atmosphere. It is only where the shore is low, marshy, and moistened with sulphurous streamlets, that the air exhibits traces of impurity.

He shows, from several authorities, that the shores of the Dead Sea are by no means so gloomy as many have described them, that they shelter various quadrupeds and birds, and produce a variety of vegetable productions. The extreme saltness of this sea he attributes to its having no outlet, and to the amount of salt conveyed into it by the Jordan, from the mountain of rock salt at Usdum.

Revival of Mesmerism.—During the early part of 1851, a great

sensation was produced in North-western Europe, including the British Isles, by several publications emanating from men of note in the scientific world, advocating the doctrines of Mesmerism to their full extent, clairvoyance included, and even going beyond their master in their expectations regarding the fruits of this new science. They attempt to prove that Astrology, Magic, Witchcraft, Sorcery, Divination, in all its forms (such as Necromancy, Oneiromancy, Rhabdomancy, Sciomancy, and all the other *mancies*), and in short the whole host of practices commonly termed "the black arts," have a foundation, both in philosophy and in fact. The only difference between the ancient and the modern professors of these arts is, that the latter, abjuring the control of Satan, in *propria persona*, attribute the power to a newly-discovered agent, universally diffused through all creation, termed *Odyle*, or more briefly *Od*, which is a very odd affair indeed, if one quarter of what those philosophers say of it be true. By means of it, we may not only converse with the spirits of the dead, but see all events, far and near, past, present and future, as clearly as an elephant can be seen at noon-day. The further side of the moon becomes as perceptible as the walls of our room, and we can discern the thoughts of our neighbors as clearly as their countenances.

The leading publications on the favorable side of this subject are, the *Letters* of the Austrian Baron Von Reichenbach, which have been translated into English by Dr. William Gregory, Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh. Dr. Gregory's own *Letters on Animal Magnetism*, and Dr. Herbert Mayo's *Truths contained in Popular Superstitions, with an Account of Mesmerism*.

On the other side have appeared an attempt to explain all the phenomena attributed to Odyle on admitted principles of Physiological and Mental Science, by Dr. Alexander Wood, of Edinburgh, and a lecture by Dr. John H. Bennett, of the same place, entitled "The Mesmeric Mania of 1851." Besides these separate publications, the subject has been treated, at considerable length, in several of the principal periodicals of Britain, both medical and general.

Dr. Gregory says, that besides obtaining information regarding absent friends, and stolen goods, clairvoyance may be useful in clearing up obscure historical points, and discovering documentary evidences regarding them. "Moreover," he continues, "I have already described the principle of the use of animal sympathy in the projected snail telegraph, or, as it is called by the inventors, the Pasilalinic Telegraph; and I have also mentioned the application of lucidity to the inspection of the living frame, healthy or diseased, for anatomical and physiological, as well as medical purposes. Clairvoyants can also see, not only dead persons, but

those of former ages, and the events in which they are concerned. Another power exhibited by the clairvoyant is, that of seeing the structure and interior of his own frame."

Dr. Bennett slily remarks, in his lecture, that the parts operated on are not those requisite to produce motion. Thus, in order to close the jaws, a manipulator will apply the supposed Od to the lips, although the masseter muscles, which actually close the jaws, are away back towards the ears; and so in other cases; whence he infers that the real power lies solely in the imagination. The Westminster Review, which is generally thought friendly to new discoveries, is quite skeptical regarding the Od; and the British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review sums up its opinion on the subject thus: "As to ourselves, we are of opinion that those writers have not considered the 'odylie,' 'mesmeric,' or 'electro-biological' phenomena which have been the object of their diligent investigation, in the true spirit of the inductive philosophy; that they have wandered widely from the right track; and that by far the largest portion of their deductions, and all their fundamental principles, are utterly wrong. We have not come to these conclusions without a careful, and, we trust, a dispassionate inquiry into the whole matter. We have read the works carefully (those of Reichenbach, Gregory and Mayo), we have experimented ourselves; we have largely collated recorded facts; and to no other conclusions could we come."

Miss Martineau turned Atheist.—Several of the former admirers of this lady have been not a little shocked by her recent publication, in connection with one Atkinson, of a work entitled "*Letters on the Laws of Man's Nature and Development*," avowing and defending thorough Atheism. The work, however, contains nothing new, and the arguments are much more ingeniously and insidiously stated in the Baron D'Halbach's celebrated "*System of Nature*." Dr. J. S. Bushnan, of Edinburgh, has thought the book worth an answer, and he has put forth one under the title of "*Miss Martineau and her Master*," which, we believe, admits of no satisfactory reply from the other side. Some, however, will consider this answer as supererogatory, as all the arguments of the bantling have been often well answered before. There is nothing new in atheistical philosophy since the days Democritus; we find only old arguments set forth in a new dress, and even that is wanting in this joint production.

Oriental Antiquities.—"Nineveh and Persepolis Restored," is the title of a work recently published in London, by James Fergusson, Esq. It gives a concise view of the discoveries made in ancient Assyria, Babylonia, and Persia, within the present century, so far

as architectural remains are concerned. The author identifies some ruins, about 30 miles northeast of Shiraz, as the remains of the gate in which Mordecai sat, as mentioned in the book of Esther. Much of the work is conjectural; but these are, generally, based on facts, and the book cannot fail to interest the student of biblical antiquities.

New Process in Printing.—It is said that M. Nicholas Zach, of Munich, has discovered a process by which he can, within half an hour, produce any design, in relief, on a plate of metal. He terms the art *Metallography*. It is said to be much less expensive than wood-engraving or stereotyping, and it copies the originals with the fidelity of the electrotype.

Dixon's Life of William Penn.—A biography of the distinguished founder of the State of Pennsylvania, by William H. Dixon, appeared at London, early in 1851, containing a particular examination of the charges made against Penn in "Macaulay's History of England." It appears to us that Mr. Dixon has satisfactorily proved that those charges are not supported by Mr. Macaulay's authorities, and that Penn's character is entitled to the high place which it previously occupied in the annals of England and America. Independently of his examination of Macaulay, whose hostility to Penn has been attributed by some to the instrumentality of the Quakers in defeating his election to Parliament, from Edinburgh, a few years ago, Mr. Dixon has presented us with a book which is very interesting for the variety of important details communicated regarding a man in whom Americans will always feel interested.

Letters of Sir Isaac Newton.—Various letters and papers, by Sir Isaac Newton, never before published, appeared at London, in the spring of 1851, in one octavo volume, edited by John Edleston, M. A. It consists mostly of Newton's correspondence with Professor Cotes, the celebrated mathematician, and is chiefly on mathematical subjects. The editor has prefixed a synoptical view of Newton's life, and, in his notes, has discussed the question of Newton's temporary aberration of intellect. This work is a valuable contribution to the history of science, as well as to the life of Newton.

St. Peter's Chair.—As many of our readers may not know much about this notable relic, we must premise a word or two regarding it, before we come to the controversy which is the immediate object of this notice.

There is, in the church of St. Peter's, at Rome, a ponderous chair, encased in bronze, which Roman Catholic tradition asserts to be

the veritable chair of St. Peter, in which he sat when presiding as universal pastor and ruler of the Christian Church. This high antiquity was repeatedly doubted by various persons. One objector, a Frenchman, doubted whether wood could last so long. To this, the Italian, Bonami, replied, that our Saviour's cradle and the true cross were preserved, and why not Peter's chair?

In the second volume of her "Italy," Lady Morgan mentions that, when the French revolutionary army took Rome, they removed the casket, and discovered the relic. On removing the dust and cobwebs, they found on it an inscription, which they carefully copied. Lady Morgan adds that, when this inscription came to be deciphered, it was found to be the common Mussulman expression, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet," in the Arabic language and Cufic characters. She says it was supposed that the chair had been taken from the Saracens and presented to the pope by some of the crusaders, at a time when Arabic inscriptions in Cufic characters could not be deciphered by European scholars. Lady Morgan afterwards stated that her authorities were the celebrated Parisian *savans*, Denon and Champollion, from whom she had the statements at Paris on her way to Italy. Denon added, that the inscription puzzled even Champollion and the most learned scholars of the French Institute, as the letters were different from the ordinary Cufic characters. She adds, that the statements were made in a drawing room, in the presence of a crowd of listeners.

Dr. (now Cardinal) Wiseman published strictures on Lady Morgan's work in 1833, which, however, were not known to her ladyship till lately. Dr. Wiseman asserts that the form of the chair proves it must be as old at least as the time of the Emperor Claudius, and that consequently it may have been used by St. Peter. He further says that it was not taken out of the casket by the French at all, and that Lady Morgan's story arose from confounding a chair at Venice, which has a Cufic inscription, with the one at Rome.

In her reply, Lady Morgan says that the best answer to Denon and Champollion would be to exhibit the chair itself. She further shows that the Cardinal took his account of the chair from a Latin treatise by Faber, written about one hundred years ago.

Soon after Lady Morgan's "Letter" to Cardinal Wiseman, which was published early in 1851, appeared a work by A. Rich, B.A., entitled "The Legend of St. Peter's Chair." Mr. Rich contends that the chair cannot be older than the time of Constantine, who died A.D. 337, from the fact that its sides and back are decorated with pillars supporting arches, a practice not used before this em-

peror's time. He further says it could not have been a curule chair, since these were crook-legged, while that in question has straight legs. Moreover, the honor of being carried in such a chair was confined to the emperors till one hundred years after Peter's days, when it was extended to men of consular dignity. Mr. Rich further contends that this chair could not have been employed to carry any person, as the rings at its four corners are horizontal, and not vertical, so that if poles were run through them, and the chair mounted on men's shoulders, a person who occupied the seat would inevitably tumble off. He further says that the inscription on the Venetian chair is only a verse or two of the Koran, of a very different import from that alleged to be found on the one at Rome.

Travels in Chinese Tartary and Thibet.—Notwithstanding the countless number of works of travels pouring yearly from the press, there are few which give us a reliable account of the immense region that owns the sway of his celestial majesty of Pekin, beyond the sea-coasts of China. Our knowledge concerning it was mostly derived from the narratives of a few old travellers, until very recently. Among the most interesting works of travels in the countries embraced within that region, we must reckon that of M. Huc, a French missionary, of the order of Lazarists. The book lately appeared at Paris, in two octavo volumes, and is entitled, *Souvenirs d'un Voyage dans la Tartarie, le Thibet, et la Chine, pendant les Années 1844, 1845, et 1846.**

During his travels, M. Huc was attended by M. Gabet, a brother missionary. Their object was to study the manners and character of the Tartars, and to ascertain the condition of the Christians beyond the Great Wall, who had been driven from China by the persecutions of the Emperor *Kia-King*, who ascended the throne in 1799.

The two missionaries assumed the dress and manners of Thibetan Lamas, or priests, and in this way travelled through those inhospitable regions for eighteen months, during which period they traversed many districts of which we have no account by any white man since Marco Polo, and visited Lassa, the capital of Thibet.

M. Huc's descriptions generally exhibit the characteristic liveliness of Frenchmen; and although we are disposed to view several things in a different light, we consider ourselves bound to say that his book contains much that is interesting and important. It gives an insight into Tartar, Chinese, and Thibetan life, that is no-

* Recollections of Travels in Tartary, Thibet and China, during the years 1844, 1845, and 1846.

where else to be found, so far as we are aware: and the accounts he gives of the Physical Geography of the countries which he has traversed, form valuable contributions to that department of science.

The Westminster Review sold.—This periodical has now become the property of John Chapman, the celebrated London publisher of free-thinking books, and is under the editorial charge of John S. Mill, author of a large, and equally heavy system of Logic. This Review has long been considered as exhibiting a leaning towards free-thinking; and it will now be the regular organ of that division of British free-thinkers of whom Carlyle may be considered a specimen,—men who do not attack revelation openly and directly, like Thomas Paine, but in a covert and philosophic manner, like Strauss, and some others of that school.

In this age of free discussion, it is proper that every individual and party should be allowed to express their sentiments with all freedom, as long as they do not infringe on the rights of others; and therefore we are glad to see that the Westminster has become the accredited organ of the most formidable opponents of Christianity,—men whose weapons are more dangerous, because they are employed in a mist. Christianity has outlived the attacks of British and French infidels, led by such men as Hume and Voltaire, and if we are not much mistaken, it will also outlive the attacks of German skepticism and its British and American transplantations; after which, we suppose, no new weapons can be employed on that side.

New American Work on Physical Geography.—A valuable treatise on this subject, by A. Barrington, edited by Charles Burdett, was recently published by Newman and Co., New York. We consider this work the best manual on the subject in the English language, either for general readers or for seminaries. It eschews discussions and speculations, which abound in some other works on this subject; and thus it gives within a moderate compass a very great amount of information, equally interesting and valuable. Those who have never studied Physical Geography have no conception of the great variety and interest of the subjects which it embraces—such as the oceans and seas, the winds, clouds, rain, dew, the formation of mountains and valleys, organic remains, climate, volcanoes and earthquakes, the geography and distribution of plants and animals, the peculiarities and localities of the various races of men, and their languages, &c. We can cordially recommend this book, both to general readers and to teachers. To the former it will be valuable as a book of reference, since it contains an extensive index, besides forming a very entertaining

book for reading. It would be a decided improvement if teachers would use such books as this for scholars who have learned to read tolerably well, and examine them as they proceed, instead of the old plan of making them read over a collection of scraps and fragments, which they have repeatedly perused before, and the further study of which is a mere waste of time. We are glad to understand that teachers begin to adopt this method.

This is the first American treatise on the subject that has ever appeared. It deserves, and we understand it is receiving, an extensive patronage. It is decidedly superior, as a repository of reliable information on the various subjects of which it treats, to any of the foreign works reprinted in this country.

United States Coast Survey.—A chart of the Pacific coast of the United States from Monterey to the Columbia River, was lately issued from the office of the U. S. Coast Survey, in three sheets, with sailing directions. The work was superintended by Prof. A. D. Bache; and its appearance is very opportune, on account of the extensive and rapidly increasing trade on that coast. The surveys were made by Lieutenants McArthur and Bartlett, in the U. S. Schooner "Ewing," between the beginning of January, 1849, and the close of 1850, while the California fever strongly affected most persons in those parts as well as elsewhere, so that the rapid and successful completion of a survey of 550 miles of coast, in these circumstances, reflects much credit on the officers. This is the first reliable chart of the Pacific coast which exhibits the bays and indentations.

Honor to Professor Bond.—In May, 1851, Professor Bond, of Cambridge, Mass., was unanimously elected Corresponding Member of the French Academy of Sciences, for the section of Astronomy, in the place of M. Svanberg, deceased. He had been reported to the Academy the week previous, along with such men as Struve, Adams, Lassell, Gasparis, Challis, &c., and he alone occupied the first rank.

Change in the Government of Harvard University.—For the last 30 or 40 years, this ancient institution has been under the control of the Unitarians. Other and more numerous denominations felt aggrieved at this state of matters, especially as the seminary had received extensive aid from the State. But the efforts to change its supervision were for a long time unavailing. The consequence was, that many students who would otherwise have attended at Harvard, resorted to other institutions. This, and some other considerations, rendered those who had the control of it less anxious to continue the former organization. Ac-

cordingly, through the continued efforts of Rev. R. A. Miller, of Worcester, for eight years, aided by that of several other persons who were interested, an act was passed by the legislature, which will abolish the control of any denomination over the institution for the future. Hitherto the government was lodged in a board of overseers, of which the majority were elected by the former overseers, as vacancies occurred. By this means, any denomination which happened to have a majority in the board, could secure a perpetual majority. By the new law, the majority of the board is chosen by the two branches of the legislature, assembled together from the State at large. As the members of the House of Representatives are much more numerous than the Senate, and vote individually like the latter, this act virtually gives the control of the University to the people.

New Sewing Machine.—Mr. Isaac N. Singer, of Newark, N. J., has lately invented a sewing machine, which is said to surpass anything of the kind. It sews from one to two yards per minute, in a manner superior to work done by hand, and it sews curves of any kind, and even flowery ornamental stitching. It is made of iron and brass, and moved by the foot like a spinning-wheel, although a large number may be moved by steam, leaving the operatives nothing to do but thread the needles, put on the cloth, and direct the seams. It is said to sew gaiter-boots, and the cloth-work on saddles in a superior manner.

Pendulum Experiment on the Earth's Daily Motion.—M. Leon Fourcault, of Paris, has planned an experiment by which the diurnal rotation of the earth is rendered perceptible by the eye. It is simply a long pendulum, which is made to vibrate in the plane of the meridian. It is found to change the plane of its vibration gradually from right to left, till it has performed a complete revolution. An experiment of this kind was made in the Bunker Hill Monument, in the beginning of June, 1851, with a wire about 216 feet long. It was conducted with great care, and the pendulum was found to move at the rate of about one degree in six minutes.

The cause of this deflection is the changing direction of the action of gravity, which is always towards the centre of the earth, and which consequently exerts an oblique action towards the west on the swinging pendulum, as the surface moves eastward, so that it changes the plane of its vibration, as mentioned above. In the Northern Hemisphere, the pendulum moves from right to left, because the oblique action on the southern edge of the arc of vibration is a little stronger, owing to the circle of rotation being there larger than on the northern edge. In the Southern Hemi-

sphere, it will move from left to right, for a similar reason. At the equator its direction will be either way, according to particular determining circumstances, or it may not rotate at all.

A New Kind of Globe.—Mr. Wyld, of London, has constructed a terrestrial globe, 65 feet in diameter, with the objects actually on the earth's surface represented on its internal surface. Visitors are admitted into the interior, and pass round it by means of a winding staircase or gallery, which enables them to view every part at a distance of not more than four feet from the eye. While we admit that this model of the earth reflects credit on Mr. Wyld, we are of opinion that such structures are too costly and cumbersome to be used in general education; and we think that persons who are not uncommonly deficient in the power of conception, can obtain a very accurate knowledge of all that such models could teach, from a common globe.

Progress of Electro-magnetic Locomotion.—About the close of April, 1851, Professor Page, of Washington, made an experimental trip with his new electro-magnetic locomotive. The whole weight of the locomotive, and seven passengers, was 11 tons. It went from Washington to Bladensburg in 39 minutes, a distance of 9 miles, although several of the cells broke, and was stopped by the way five times. The greatest speed at any one time during the trip, was 19 miles an hour. Professor Page calculated the effective force of the engine equal to a 24-horse power: and he considers that the difficulties hitherto experienced in making electro-magnetic power successful for locomotion, are all surmountable. We presume it will come to be a question of economy merely between it and steam; and the gradual exhaustion of the richest coal beds will give electro-magnetism the advantage, as time rolls on.

Professor Morse.—This gentleman, whose invention of the electro-magnetic telegraph has placed him in the first ranks of mechanical and scientific genius, lately received from the King of Prussia a gold medal, as a token of his majesty's sense of the value of the invention. The medal was inclosed in a gold box, about four inches square; and the weight of the whole is about ten ounces. Morse's telegraph has recently been introduced throughout Prussia, and the medal was awarded to Prof. Morse by a committee, which is annually appointed by the government, and authorized to award, among other honors, a gold medal for what they judge to be the best production.

Meeting of the American Scientific Association.—This body held a meeting at Cincinnati during the first week in May, 1851. There

was a large attendance of savans from every part of the Union, and the number of papers presented was 87. We shall notice only a few of the most interesting :

Prof. Peirce, of Harvard University, presented a paper on Saturn's Rings. He maintains that they are not solid, but fluid bodies, and that they greatly vary in number, viz.: from two to twenty. They also constantly vary in position, form, and aspect. These results were arrived at, partly by analytical investigations, and partly from the recent observations of Mr. Bond at the Cambridge Observatory.

An interesting lecture was delivered by Professor Agassiz, on the Coral Reefs of Florida. He maintains that the character of these reefs is very different from that of coral reefs in other parts of the world, and particularly in the Pacific. They are formed only near the land, extending along the coast to the Gulf Stream; and in several instances they form dangerous shoals and ledges. Yet the natural harbors found at intervals of about 20 miles, would enable navigators to avoid such dangers, with the aid of a number of suitable sea-lights. The present lights he thinks worse than useless. He also thinks it very improbable that the reefs will extend further than at present.

There was a large number of new fossils exhibited, so that M. Agassiz said he had never before seen so many new specimens in one collection. The situation of Cincinnati is favorable to the collection of such specimens; and the naturalists and geologists of the West seem to have made a good use of their advantages.

Mr. Wilkes, of the U. S. Exploring Expedition, presented various novel views on the subject of the temperature of the ocean, and the origin of the trade-winds and storms. But he did not enter into any extensive discussion of these subjects. He traces the trade-winds to a belt of warm water in the ocean, varying from 75° to 90° Fahrenheit.

H. Miller's Old Red Sandstone.—Those who have not read this work would form a very erroneous notion of its character from the title. The old red sandstone is generally reckoned the least interesting of all the fossiliferous rocks, on account of its supposed paucity of organic remains, and the general absence of those striking features which arrest the attention in several of the other formations. But a perusal of this book will show that the old red is by no means deficient either in organic remains or other interesting objects. It is written with a good deal of the redundancy, and sudden transitions from one subject to another, which we find in newspaper paragraphs. But these peculiarities have their advantages. Those who read only elementary text-books on geology,

cannot realize the evidence on which the principal conclusions of the science are based, without either reasoning very closely or making independent observations. But the way in which the facts are brought out in this volume, will do much to remove this difficulty. That which some experience in admitting the conclusions of the geologist, always arises from ignorance or misconception regarding his facts. When these are spread out, as they are in this volume, we believe very few will hesitate regarding its conclusions.

Mr. Miller's work can be read to advantage either by those who already possess a general knowledge of geology, and wish to become more thoroughly acquainted with the particular subject of the book, or by persons who are entirely ignorant of the science. The style is clear and easy, while the occasional introduction of collateral topics render it more interesting. We consider it deserving of the popularity which it has received in Britain, and we are glad to see that a handsome American reprint has appeared at Boston, from the press of Gould & Lincoln. The patronage extended by the public to books of this kind, is a gratifying indication of a gradual improvement in the public taste.

Improvement of Steam-Propellers.—In the Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Patents for 1849 (*Part I. Arts and Manufactures*), is an interesting discussion on this important subject, by the learned and ingenious Mr. Ewbank, late Commissioner of Patents. Notwithstanding the great improvements effected in the arts, the propellers of our steamboats exhibit not the least advance upon the primitive paddle of the Indian. The propelling power is different; but the instrument is essentially the same. Indeed, from its great thickness at the edge, it is decidedly inferior.

Mr. Ewbank first gives the results of various experiments made with different forms and arrangements of paddles, made on the Harlem River, near New-York, in 1848, in calm and smooth water. One of the paddles was square, and fixed in the usual way; and paddles of the same size, but of different forms, were fixed successively on the other side of the vessel, and the rapidity with which it was turned round indicated the comparative power of the different kinds of paddles. The result of the experiments prove that triangular blades, with equal areas and equal dip, may be rendered twice as effective as the ordinary rectangular paddles. It was found that two paddles, in the shape of a right-angled triangle, with the longest leg perpendicular, were equal to eight square paddles, each of them of the same size as the triangular ones. Four of the triangular turned the boat against eight of the other so rapidly, that it described a circle of less than 50

feet in diameter, although, as both wheels were fixed on the same shaft, the one revolved in the same time as the other.

Mr. Ewbank justly argues that the usual number of paddles might be diminished to advantage. He maintains that one in the act of plunging, another sweeping under the shaft, and a third leaving the surface, are sufficient, and that a greater number is positively injurious. To multiply the number of paddles diminishes the resistance of the water, by entirely removing a portion of it, and also by communicating to it a rapid motion in the direction in which the paddles are moving.

The cause of the greater power of paddles of a triangular form, with their points at the surface of the water when they are directly under the shaft, is, that they offer most surface at the extreme point of the lever, where the resistance of the water is stronger on account of the more rapid motion. Where the broad surface is at the point of the lever nearest the centre of motion, the resistance of the water is less for the same reason, and consequently power is lost in merely communicating a backward motion to the water, which is expended by the other plan in propelling the vessel. This explanation is ours, not Mr. Ewbank's; and therefore he is not responsible if it should be found incorrect.

Mr. Ewbank points to the striking fact that the tails of fast-swimming fishes are broad without and narrow at the root, like that of the mackerel, the dolphin, and the sword-fish, while that of slow swimmers is nearly of a uniform breadth, like that of the sole, the flounder, and the perch.

The same peculiarity is observed in the wings of birds. Compare the long and narrow wings of the hawk, swallow, albatross, or petrel, with the short and round wings of the domestic fowl, ostrich, or wren.

Mr. Ewbank recommends that paddles should be made in the shape of one side of a duck's foot—long, narrow within, and broader without, with a projecting angle on the inner side, which should be fixed vertically. The advantages of such paddles would be, that their propelling power would be about double that of the common paddles, for the same extent of surface and moving power; the greatest strain would be nearest the power; they would not be raised out of the water by the rolling of the vessel, nor be subjected to an excessive strain when submerged; and they would produce little or no concussion on dipping.

Mr. Ewbank also made experiments with plank paddles seven-eighths of an inch thick against metal paddles about one-sixteenth of an inch thick, when the former were found decidedly inferior; and they also raised much more water. The edges of paddles should be made sharp, so that the water may readily

leave them; and consequently they will raise much less. The paddles should be made as thin as is consistent with a sufficient degree of strength, so that they may displace as little water as possible, the displacement of water being equivalent to a diminution of the propelling power, since it diminishes the resistance to the paddles, on which the propulsion wholly depends. For this reason metal is preferable to wood for paddles, since a much smaller thickness gives the requisite degree of strength.

Wheels ought to be made lighter by diminishing the size of the arms towards their extremities, as the pressure becomes less. This would not only lessen the power required to overcome the inertia of the wheel, but it would diminish the amount of water displaced.

Some advantage would be derived from coating the paddles with some material that powerfully repels water. Where a wheel requires to be loaded, the weight should be fixed so as not to dip into the water; and everything superfluous should be removed from the parts that dip into the water, for reasons already stated.

Turkish Academy of Sciences.—This institution was founded in the summer of 1851, under the title of "The Academy of Knowledge." It is to consist of forty members, and an indefinite number of foreign correspondents. Its objects are the publication of original scientific works, and the translation into Turkish of foreign works of importance. Its first labor will be the compilation of an Encyclopedia of the sciences in the Turkish language.

Assyrian Antiquities.—Col. Rawlinson, the distinguished Orientalist, in a letter to the London Athenæum, communicates the intelligence that he has deciphered an inscription on an Assyrian Bull, containing an account of the campaign between Sennacherib and Hezekiah, and showing that the former king was the builder of the great palace of Koyunjik. He has also deciphered an account of the captivity of the Israelites by Shalmaneser. The exact number of families is stated, being 27,280, and it is added that he settled in their places colonists brought from Babylonia. The reader will observe that these statements exactly accord with those of the Old Testament.

Of Sennacherib, it is said that he subdued the Babylonians. In the third year of his reign, he undertook an expedition against Sidon, which he completely subjugated. It then mentions an insurrection in Syria against the Assyrian rule, in which the tributary king and the deputies were driven into the country, and took refuge with *Khazakriyahu*, (Hezekiah) King of *Ursalimma*, (Jerusalem) the capital of *Yahudah*, (Judah). The rebels then sent for

assistance to the King of Egypt, who marched to their aid with a large army. These were defeated, and many killed and captured.

A quarrel now arose between Sennacherib and Hezekiah regarding tribute. The former ravaged the open country, and at last threatened Jerusalem. But Hezekiah submitted and paid thirty talents of gold and three hundred of silver, and gave the Assyrian the Temple ornaments, slaves and servants for the use of the palace. Sennacherib then returned to Assyria.

Cause of Goitre and Cretinism.—Dr. Grange recently laid before the French Academy of Sciences a paper containing the results of his investigations into this subject. He attributes it to some soluble salt of magnesia, chiefly the sulphate, chlorate or carbonate, dissolved in the waters of the districts where goitres prevail. He found it prevail, only where the elements of such salts exist in the soil; and he actually detected them in the waters by chemical analysis. He showed that some of the Alpine valleys where such affections prevail are quite open and airy, while others in which the circulation of air is impeded by overhanging mountain ridges, are entirely free from it. The soil in which they are found contains gypsum and dolomite.

A particular locality was cited in which the whole population was more or less afflicted with the disease, except one family, who used cistern-water, while all the rest used water derived immediately from the earth. In various parts of Germany there are springs known by the name of *Goitre Springs*, from their well-known property of giving this disease to persons who drink of their waters for a time. Young men sometimes drink of these waters, in order to contract the disease, and thus escape military service.

The simplest and best preventive is, the use of water not impregnated with magnesian salts. Where this is impracticable, recourse may be had to iodine, which is considered a specific remedy for the disease: and M. Grange recommends that slightly iodurated salt should be used instead of common salt.

The committee to which the paper was referred adopted its conclusions; and the Academy ordered a memorial on the subject to be addressed to the Ministers of Public Instruction and of Agriculture and Commerce.

Honor to Commander Lynch.—The Geographical Society of France, at a meeting on the 11th of April, 1851, decreed to Capt. Lynch, U. S. Navy, a silver medal, for discoveries on the river Jordan and the Dead Sea, as a testimony of the estimation in which they hold his labors and their results, in regions hitherto little known.

Bridging the Nile.—There is now in progress of construction, near Cairo, a bridge across the Nile, the first ever attempted, so far as is known. It was commenced several years ago by Mehemet Ali; and some fear that it will never be finished. The water is about thirty feet deep at the place, and there is the same depth of soft mud below, till they reach solid ground. The foundation of the pillars is sunk through the mud in iron boxes, till it rests on a firm bottom. There is now about 100 feet of piers ready for receiving the arches. The foundation stones are laid, and piles driven by a number of men placed in a large diving-bell. At one time, 25,000 men were employed on this bridge; but the number has been much diminished since the death of Mehemet Ali.

Printing in China.—The art of printing has been known in China from a very remote period; and there is good reason to suppose that the knowledge of it was derived thence by Europeans. Yet here, as in some analogous cases, the pupils surpassed their teachers. The improvements of the European method are that the types are movable, and made of metal, while the process of inking and taking impressions is much more rapid and exact. Some of the missionaries from England and this country have recently attempted to apply the European method to the symbolic characters of the Chinese, and owing to the cheapness of labor in that country, they have succeeded in printing books which excel in beauty those by the native artisans, and which are sold at a very low price. Yet the immense number of characters required in symbolic printing, offers a serious obstacle to the success of this scheme. The number of characters required to print an ordinary book exceeds 5,000; and a font of type could not be considered complete without at least five times that number of characters. We do not, therefore, see that the application of movable types can be any great advantage without adopting a phonetic, instead of a symbolic character. We are, therefore, glad to learn that the Roman characters have been lately introduced for this purpose. These ought to be modified so as to represent with accuracy all the chief peculiarities of the Chinese pronunciation. The new light now breaking in upon the Chinese mind regarding the superiority of foreigners in arts and sciences, must render them disposed to adopt new methods of learning; and the immense advantages of phonetic characters over their old symbols cannot fail to commend them to the more intelligent classes. This method possesses not only the advantage of greater cheapness, but also incomparably greater facility in learning to read. With the present Chinese characters, it requires many years' study to read with any degree of facility; and few, even of their learned

men, know the signification of all the characters, for the whole number is somewhere about 80,000. We trust, therefore, that the new scheme of using phonetic characters will be successful, and that future efforts will be directed mainly to introducing a proper system, although the old method deserves attention for the present, since it is known to the educated classes of China. These, however, form but a small portion of the whole population; and in the circumstances of the empire, it is hopeless to expect that education can ever become general until the symbolic characters have been superseded by a better system. The fact that the Roman characters are already used by all the more enlightened nations, gives them a preferable claim; and the missionaries have done wisely in selecting them.

Bovill's Patent Grist-Mill.—This invention introduces a few very simple but very effective improvements by which the evils of the present system of corn-grinding are completely surmounted. Mr. Bovill directs a strong current of cold air between the closely-set surfaces of the stones as they revolve; and in this way not only is the substance of each seed at once released from further pressure as soon as it is converted into meal, but it is effectually dried at the same time, and comes away perfectly cool and free from any tendency to ferment. While the meal is carried off by the usual channels, the blast of air is carried upwards by a very pretty contrivance, and discharged through a woollen screen, in which the finer particles of dust swept along with it are arrested and preserved for use. The hot, damp feel of the current as it makes its escape from the grindstones, sufficiently attests the valuable purposes which it serves in relieving the manufactured article from moisture and heat—the incentive to fermentation. In this way twice the quantity of grain can be passed through the mill as in the ordinary system, and, thus, besides other important advantages secured, each pair of stones is enabled to do a double amount of work. A great economy of coals and other expenses incidental to the miller's trade is, of course, the consequence, not to mention that there is no waste from dust flying about, the machinery being all closed in; no injury to the stamina of the flour from unnecessary trituration; no tendency to ferment, the period for resting and cooling the meal being thereby dispensed with. So entirely is this last the case, that the processes of grinding and “dressing” go on continuously and without a moment's interruption. But, in separating the flour from the bran and pollard, Mr. Bovill's patent follows an entirely different course from that usually pursued. Instead of a metallic sieve, and brushes violently squeezing the powdered substance of the wheat through it, a fine silk screening apparatus is

used, and the flour is dusted through it either by its specific gravity or by a current of air, if necessary.

In this way, gently and without compulsion, the manufacture is completed, and that there may be no mistake as to the efficiency of the new method, we give a few of the more striking results which it has already yielded. In the first place, then, red wheat can be converted by this process into flour equal to that of white wheat—a fact, in itself, of immense importance to farmers, and which makes a difference in favor of the hardier and more prolific varieties of grain amounting to 4s. per quarter. Again, there is a considerable saving in the quantity of flour got from the same description of wheat, and the quality is so superior that out of a sack eight quartern loaves are obtained beyond the usual number. The flour produced is found to stand keeping even in summer weather. The British Government, after a lengthened investigation, have adopted Mr. Bovill's invention at Deptford.

Glass Water Pipes.—The deleterious substances produced from lead by the action of carbonic acid and other similar substances found in water, has produced a well-founded dislike of that metal for conveying water for domestic purposes. Messrs. Swinburne, of London, have attempted to introduce glass pipes as a substitute for those of lead. Glass made without employing any metallic flux, is impervious to water, and not subject to be corroded by it for an indefinite period of time.

Although these qualities of glass tubes have been long appreciated, the difficulty of making proper joints hitherto prevented their general use. A cement of a high temperature, such as solder, would crack the glass, and non-metallic cements mostly bear little pressure, and are soluble in water. Messrs. Swinburne consider that this difficulty has now been obviated by their process, in which a metallic collar or band is firmly fixed at the end of a glass pipe, and incorporated with its exterior substance, by which means the pipes can be easily jointed together. The price of such pipes, including the joints, is less than that of lead.

Electro-Magnetic Astronomical Apparatus.—This apparatus has been exhibited to the British Association, and described by Messrs. G. P. and R. F. Bond, of the Cambridge (Mass.) Observatory. It consists of an electric break-circuit clock, a galvanic battery of a single Grove's cup, and the spring-governor, by which uniform motion is given to the paper. Two wires pass from the clock, one direct to the battery, and the other through the break-circuit key used by the observer, and through the recording magnet back to the battery. The length is, of course, immaterial. When the battery is in connection, the circuit is broken by the pallet leaving

the tooth of the wheel, and is restored at the instant of the beat of the clock, which is, in fact, the sound produced by the completion of the contact restoring the circuit, the passage of the current being through the pallet and the escapement-wheel alone. With the exception of the connecting wires, and the insulation of some parts, the clock is like those in common use for astronomical purposes. Several forms have been proposed by different persons for interrupting, mechanically, the galvanic circuit at intervals precisely equal. In the present instance the clock is of the form proposed by Mr. Bond. Prof. Wheatstone, Prof. Mitchell, Dr. Locke, Mr. Saxton, and others, have contrived different modes of effecting this object—the former several years since, but for a purpose distinct from the present. The cylinder makes a single rotation in a minute. The second marks and the observations succeed each other in a continuous spiral. When a sheet is filled and it is taken from the cylinder, the second marks and observations appear in parallel columns, as in a table of double entry, the minutes and seconds being the two arguments at the head and side of the sheet. The observer, with the break-circuit key in his hand or at his side, at the instant of the transit of a star over the wire of a telescope, touches the key with his finger. The record is made at the same instant on the paper, which may be at any distance, many hundred miles, if required, from the observer. It is a well-established fact, that not only may observations be increased in number by this process, but that the limits of error of each individual result are also narrowed. As far as comparisons have yet been made, the *personal* equation between different observers, if not entirely insensible, is at least confined to a few hundredths of a second. It is through the facilities and means furnished by the Coast Survey Department of the United States, under the superintendence of Dr. A. D. Bache, that individuals have been enabled to bring to its present stage the application of electro-magnetism to the purposes of Geodesy and of Astronomy, it having been at the expense of that Department, and frequently by its officers, that nearly all the experiments have been conducted.

Action of Waves.—Mr. A. G. Findlay, in an essay on artificial breakwaters, makes the following statements on the subject:—

The dynamic force exerted by sea waves is greatest at the crest of the wave before it breaks, and its power in raising itself is measured by various facts. At Wasberg, in Norway, in 1820, it rose 400 feet; and on the coast of Cornwall, 1843, 300 feet. There are, likewise, cases showing that waves have sometimes raised a column of water equivalent to a pressure of from three to five tons to the square foot. It has also been proved that the velocity

of the waves depends on their length; that waves of from 300 to 500 feet in length, from crest to crest, travel with a velocity of from 20 to $27\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour; and this, whether they are 5 or 54 feet in total height. Waves travel very great distances, and are often raised by far-off hurricanes, having been felt simultaneously at St. Helena and Ascension, though 600 miles apart; and it is probable that ground-swells often originate at the Cape of Good Hope, 3,000 miles distant. Nor do waves exert their force at or near the surface only; one instance being mentioned where a diving-bell at the depth of 8 fathoms was moved 5 feet laterally, in calm weather.

Growth of Plants in various Gases.—Dr. J. H. Gladstone and Mr. G. Gladstone recently communicated two papers to the British Association, containing the results of their investigations on this subject. These indicate that gases may be divided into two great classes in respect to their action upon vegetable life; namely, those which are decidedly poisonous, and those which exert no deleterious influence. The poisonous gases have been investigated by Drs. Christison and Turner: they are sulphurous acid, chlorine, and cyanogen; and a very minute quantity of any of these is found to destroy plants immersed in them for only a few hours; indeed some of them, sulphurous acid for instance, are decidedly more injurious to vegetable than to animal life. In respect to hydrogen, Davy came to the conclusion that it was injurious to some plants, but not to others; Saussure found that a plant of *Lythrum Salicaria* flourished for five weeks in an atmosphere of this gas. Is it not possible that some of the compound gases which frequently contaminate hydrogen, and which are known to be poisonous even in very small proportion, may have led to the destruction of those plants which died apparently through the influence of hydrogen gas? As far as our own experiments are concerned, we find hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, carbonic oxide, nitrous oxide, and perhaps gaseous hydrocarbons, to be perfectly innocuous to vegetable life in any proportion.

Deep-Sea Soundings.—A recent act of Congress having authorized the U. S. vessels to co-operate with Lieut. Maury in his investigations of the phenomena of the ocean; and an order having been issued from the Ordinance Bureau, requiring the commanders to obtain deep-sea soundings in calm weather, some interesting results have been laid before the scientific world.

Heretofore, the difficulty was in getting a line long enough, and in knowing when the plummet had reached the bottom.

Recourse had been had by other navies to wire of great length and tenuity; and the greatest depth ever known to have been

reached, before the subject was taken up in the United States, was the sounding, by an officer of the English Navy, in 4,000 fathoms, which was by no means satisfactory. Lieutenant Walsh, in the United States' schooner, *Fancy*, has reported a sounding without bottom, more than a mile deeper than this.

Instead of costly implements used for sounding the depths of the ocean, the American vessels are simply supplied with twine, to which they attach a weight, and when the weight ceases to sink they know it is on the bottom; thus the depths of the ocean, in the deepest parts, may, without trouble or inconvenience, be ascertained in every calm of a few minutes' continuance.

With this simple contrivance, the *Albany*, Captain Platt, has run a line of deep-sea soundings across the Gulf of Mexico, from Tampico to the Straits of Florida; and has ascertained the basin which holds the waters of this Gulf to be about a mile deep, and the Gulf stream in the Florida Pass about 3,000 feet deep.

Captain Barron, of the *John Adams*, has been sounding the Atlantic basin; between the Capes of Virginia and the Island of Madeira, belonging to Portugal. He got bottom with a line of 5,500 fathoms, the deepest, and 1,040 fathoms the shallowest.

A New Sounding Instrument.—Messrs. Ogden and Ericsson have recently patented an improvement of their useful sounding instrument, so that it is much simpler, and sold at a much lower price than the original invention. It is based on the same principle as the old instrument. The pressure of the water, which is allowed to enter through an opening in the bottom of a strong copper tube, compresses the contained air more and more, as the instrument descends, and forces itself into a strong glass tube, parallel to the copper one. The amount of water which is thus forced into the former, indicates the pressure and consequently the depth of the water which is marked on the tube, so that no calculation is required. The accuracy of this instrument has been proved by comparing its results with those given by the ordinary sounding line. Its advantages are, that soundings can be taken while a vessel is under way, and independently of the measurement of the lead line. Hence, it does not require the vessel to be rounded to the wind as in ordinary soundings. Several of these instruments have been ordered by Commodore Perry for the Japan Expedition.

STATISTICS.

I. POPULATION, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES. SEVENTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

ABSTRACT OF THE REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF CENSUS,
J. C. G. KENNEDY, ESQ. 1850.

THE schedules used in taking the Seventh Census of the United States were arranged on principles different from any heretofore used for that purpose. The plan adopted for their construction, while adding immensely to the labor of the office, presents on the face of the schedule, much more information in the same space, and a better combination of facts relating to persons and things, than has heretofore been attained, while it is perfectly simple, without complication, but little liable to error, furnishing easy means of detecting and correcting most of the errors which occur. These blanks were prepared under the direction of the Census Board, and were furnished in timely season. They proved to be well adapted to the purpose for which they were designed. Among the great number transmitted through the mails, from every portion of our territory, not one schedule was received at the office in a mutilated condition, or in any way injured.

The expenses of the Census Office have been as follows, viz.:

For printing and stationery, including the amount reported at the first and second sessions of the last Congress, and by the Census Board	\$33,153 71
For amount paid United States marshals	34,001 25
For amount paid to assistant marshals	891,245 18
For amount paid for clerk hire and contingent expenses of the office	105,929 66
The aggregate amount appropriated for taking the Seventh Census was	1,267,500 00
The balance on hand the first day of December, 1851	203,170 00
The balance due to marshals and assistant marshals of United States	130,201 00
To pay for contingent expenses, including clerk hire, office rent, fuel, stationery, etc., to the 30th day of June, 1853, there will be required an appropriation of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars	150,000 00

The cost of printing the compilation of the Seventh Census forms no portion of this estimate—that must be determined by the plan adopted by Congress for the execution of the work.

In the performance of the present work, there have been engaged 45 marshals, and 3,231 assistants; to each of whom, in addition to the schedules, were sent pamphlets of printed instructions, together with “form” schedules ready filled up for their guidance.

In the compilation of the Seventh Census, it has not been deemed necessary to divide the population (as has been done heretofore) into divisions other than by counties, cities, wards, or boroughs. Each county in the United States possesses a copy of its own returns, and for its own purposes it enjoys facilities of arriving at the interests of the separate towns or townships—divisions, uninteresting to the community at large. Each separate State possesses also a copy of the complete returns of the whole State, and from these may be able easily to subdivide, for State purposes, as minutely as desirable. To include all the subdivisions of each State would make the work, if not now, very soon, entirely too unwieldy. The subdivisions are, however, laid down in the original returns, and if it should be deemed desirable, may easily be designated in the general work.

The seventh enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States exhibits results which every citizen of the country may contemplate with gratification and pride. Since the census of 1840, there have been added to the territory of the republic, by annexation, conquest, and purchase, 833,970 square miles; and our title to a region covering 341,463 square miles, which before properly belonged to us, but was claimed and partially occupied by a foreign power, has been established by negotiation, and it has been brought within our acknowledged boundaries. By such means the area of the United States has been extended, during the past ten years, from 2,055,163 to 3,230,572 square miles, without including the great lakes which lie upon our northern border, or the bays which indent our Atlantic and Pacific shores; all which has come within the scope of the Seventh Census.

In the endeavor to ascertain the progress of our population since 1840, it will be proper to deduct from the aggregate number of inhabitants shown by the present census, the population of Texas in 1840, and the number embraced within the limits of California and the new Territories, at the time of their acquisition. From the best information which has come to hand, it is believed that Texas contained, in 1840, 75,000 inhabitants; and that when California, New Mexico, and Oregon, came into our possession, in 1846, they had a population of 97,000. It thus appears that we

have received, by accessions of territory, since 1840, an accession of 172,000 to the number of our people.

Owing to delays and difficulties mentioned in completing the work, which no action on the part of this office could obviate, some of the returns from California have not yet been received. Assuming the population of California to be 165,000, (which we do partly by estimate,) the total number of inhabitants in the United States was, on the 1st of June, 1850, 23,263,488. The absolute increase from the 1st of June, 1840, has been 6,194,035, and the actual increase per cent. is 36.28. But it has been shown that the probable amount of population acquired by additions of territory should be deducted in making a comparison between the results of the present and the last census. These reductions diminish the total population of the country, as a basis of comparison, to 23,091,488, and the increase to 6,022,035. The relative increase, after this allowance, is found to be 35.27 per cent. The aggregate number of whites in 1850 was 19,630,738, exhibiting a gain upon the number of the same class in 1840 of 5,434,933, and a relative increase of 38.28 per cent. But excluding the 153,000 free population supposed to have been acquired by the addition of territory since 1840, the gain is 5,281,933, and the increase per cent. is 37.20.

The number of slaves, by the present census, is 3,204,089, which shows an increase of 716,733, equal to 28.81 per cent. If we deduct 19,000 for the probable slave population of Texas in 1840, the result of the comparison will be slightly different. The absolute increase will be 697,733, and the rate per cent. 28.05.

The number of free colored in 1850 was 428,661; in 1840, 386,292. The increase of this class has been 42,369, or 10.96 per cent.

From 1830 to 1840, the increase of the whole population was at the rate of 32.67 per cent. At the same rate of advancement, the absolute gain for the ten years last past would have been 5,576,590, or 445,445 less than it has been, without including the increase consequent upon additions of territory.

The aggregate increase of population, from all sources, shows a relative advance greater than that of any other decennial term, except that from the second to the third census, during which time the country received an accession of inhabitants, by the purchase of Louisiana, considerably greater than 1 per cent. of the whole number. Rejecting from the census of 1810, 1.45 per cent., for the population of Louisiana, and from the census of 1850, 1 per cent. for that of Texas, California, &c., the result is in favor of the last ten years by about one fourteenth of one per cent.; the gain from 1800 to 1810 being 35.00 per cent.; and

from 1840 to 1850, 35.28 per cent. But, without going behind the sum of the returns, it appears that the increase from the second to the third census was thirty-two hundredths of one per cent. greater than the increase from the sixth to the seventh.

The decennial increase of the most favored portions of Europe is less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum, while with the United States it is at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. According to our past progress, viewed in connection with that of European nations, the population of the United States in forty years will exceed that of England, France, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland, combined. The relative progress of the several races and classes of the population is shown in the following tabular statement:

Increase per cent. of each class of Inhabitants in the United States for sixty years.

Classes.	1790 to 1800.	1800 to 1810.	1810 to 1820.	1820 to 1830.	1830 to 1840.	1840 to 1850.
Whites	35.7	36.2	34.19	33.95	34.7	38.28
Free colored	82.2	72.2	25.25	36.85	20.9	10.96
Slaves	27.9	33.4	29.1	30.61	23.8	28.81
Total colored . . .	32.2	37.6	28.58	31.44	23.4	26.41
Total population .	35.01	36.45	33.12	33.48	32.67	36.28

The census had been taken previously to 1830 on the 1st of August; the enumeration began that year on the 1st of June, two months earlier, so that the interval between the fourth and fifth censuses was two months less than ten years, which time allowed for would bring the total increase up to the rate of 34.36 per cent.

The table given below shows the increase from 1790 to 1850, without reference to intervening periods:

No of—	1790.	1850.	Absolute increase in sixty years.	Inc. pr. ct. in sixty years.
Whites	3,172,464	19,630,738	16,458,274	518.78
Free colored	59,466	428,661	369,195	620.85
Slaves	697,897	3,204,089	2,506,192	359.10
Total free colored and slaves	757,363	3,632,750	2,875,387	379.65
Total population . .	3,929,827	23,263,488	19,333,661	491.97

Sixty years since, the proportion between the whites and blacks, bond and free, was 4.18 to 1. In 1850, it was 5.4 to 1, and the ratio in favor of the former race is increasing. Had the blacks increased as fast as the whites during these sixty years, their number, on the 1st June, would have been 4,686,410; so that, in comparison with the whites, they have lost, in this period, 1,053,660.

This disparity is much more than accounted for by European

emigration to the United States. Dr. Chickering, in an essay upon emigration, published at Boston in 1848—distinguished for great elaborateness of research—estimates the gain of the white population, from this source, at 3,922,152. No reliable record was kept of the number of emigrants into the United States until 1820, when, by the law of March, 1819, the collectors were required to make quarterly returns of foreign passengers arriving in their districts. For the first ten years, the returns under the law afford materials for only an approximation to a true state of the facts involved in this inquiry.

Dr. Chickering assumes, as a result of his investigations, that of the 6,431,088 inhabitants of the United States in 1820, 1,430,906 were foreigners, arriving subsequent to 1790, or the descendants of such. According to Dr. Seybert, an earlier writer upon statistics, the number of foreign passengers, from 1790 to 1810, was, as nearly as could be ascertained, 120,000; and from the estimates of Dr. Seybert, and other evidence, Hon. George Tucker, author of a valuable work on the census of 1840, supposes the number from 1810 to 1820, to have been 114,000. These estimates make for the thirty years preceding 1820, 234,000.

If we reckon the increase of these emigrants at the average rate of the whole body of white population during these three decades, they and their descendants, in 1820, would amount to about 360,000. From 1820 to 1830, there arrived, according to the returns of the custom-houses, 135,986 foreign passengers, and from 1830 to 1840, 579,370, making for the 20 years 715,356. During this period, a large number of emigrants from England, Scotland, and Ireland, came into the United States through Canada. Dr. Chickering estimates the number of such from 1820 to 1830, at 67,993; and from 1830 to 1840, at 199,130—for the twenty years together, 267,123. During the same time, a considerable number are supposed to have landed at New York with the purpose of pursuing their route to Canada; but it is probable that the number of these was balanced by the omissions in the official returns.

From 1840 to 1850, the arrivals of foreign passengers, in the ports of the United States, have been as follows:

1840-41	83,504	1847	234,756
1842	101,107	1848	226,524
1843	75,159	1849	269,610
1844	74,607	1850†	173,011
1845	102,415		
1846*	202,157	Total	1,542,850

* This return includes fifteen months, from July 1, 1845, to 30th September, 1846.

† The report from the State Department for this year, gives 315,333 as the total

Within the last ten years there has probably been comparatively little immigration of foreigners into the United States over the Canada frontier; the disposition to take the route by Quebec having yielded to the increased facilities for direct passenger transportation to the cities of the Union; what there has been may, perhaps, be considered as equalled by the number of foreigners passing into Canada, after landing at New York, many having been drawn thither by the opportunities of employment afforded by the public works of the province. As the heaviest portion of this great influx of immigration took place in the latter half of the decade, it will probably be fair to estimate the natural increase during the term at twelve per cent., being about one third of that of the white population of the country at its commencement.

Taking for granted the substantial correctness of the above estimate, and the accuracy of the returns during the last ten years, the following statement will show the accessions to our population from immigration from 1790 to 1850:

Number of foreigners arriving from 1790 to 1810	120,000
Natural increase, reckoned in periods of ten years	47,560
Number of foreigners arriving from 1810 to 1820	114,000
Increase of the above to 1820	19,000
Increase from 1810 to 1820 of those arriving previous to 1810 . .	58,450
Total number of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in 1820	359,010
Number of immigrants arriving from 1820 to 1830	203,979
Increase of the above	35,728
Increase from 1820 to 1830 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the country in 1820	134,130
Total number of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1830	732,847
Number of immigrants arriving from 1830 to 1840	778,500
Increase of the above	135,150
Increase from 1830 to 1840 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1830	254,445
Total number of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1840	1,900,942
Number of immigrants arriving from 1840 to 1850	1,542,850
Increase of the above at twelve per cent.	185,142
Increase from 1840 to 1850 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1840	722,000
Total number of immigrants into the United States since 1790, and their descendants in 1850	4,350,934

number of passengers arriving in the United States; but of these 30,023 were citizens of the Atlantic States proceeding to California by sea, and 5,320 natives of the country returning from visits abroad. A deduction of 106,870 is made from the balance, for that portion of the year from June 1 to September 30.

The density of population is a branch of the subject which naturally attracts the attention of the inquirer. The following table has been prepared from the most authentic data accessible to this office:

Table of the Area and the number of Inhabitants to the square mile in each State and Territory in the Union.

State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1850.	No. of inhabitants to sq. m.
Maine	30,000	583,188	19.44
New Hampshire	9,280	317,964	34.26
Vermont	10,212	314,120	30.76
Massachusetts	7,800	994,499	127.49
Rhode Island	1,306	147,544	112.97
Connecticut	4,674	370,791	79.33
New York	46,000	3,097,394	67.33
New Jersey	8,320	489,555	58.84
Pennsylvania	46,000	2,311,786	50.25
Delaware	2,120	91,535	43.17
Maryland	9,356	583,035	62.31
Virginia	61,352	1,421,661	23.17
North Carolina	45,000	868,903	19.30
South Carolina	24,500	668,507	27.28
Georgia	58,000	905,999	15.62
Alabama	50,722	771,671	15.21
Mississippi	47,156	606,555	12.86
Louisiana	46,431	517,739	11.15
Texas	237,321	212,592	.89
Florida	59,268	87,401	1.47
Kentucky	37,680	982,405	26.07
Tennessee	45,600	1,002,625	21.98
Missouri	67,380	682,043	10.12
Arkansas	52,198	209,639	4.01
Ohio	39,964	1,980,408	49.55
Indiana	33,809	988,416	29.23
Illinois	55,405	851,470	15.36
Michigan	56,243	397,654	7.07
Iowa	50,914	192,214	3.77
Wisconsin	53,924	305,191	5.65
California	188,982
Minnesota	83,000	6,077	.07
Oregon	341,463	13,293	.03
New Mexico	219,774	61,547	.28
Utah	187,923	11,380	...
Nebraska	136,700
Indian	187,171
North West	587,564
District of Columbia	60	51,687	861.45

From the location, climate, and productions, and the habits and pursuits of their inhabitants, the States of the Union may be properly arranged into the following groups:

	Area in square miles.	Population.	No. inhab. to sq. m.
New England States (6)	63,272	2,728,106	43.11
Middle States, including Maryland, Delaware, and Ohio (6)	151,760	8,553,713	56.36
Coast Planting States, including South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, (6)	286,077	3,557,872	12.43
Central Slave States: Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mis- souri, Arkansas, (6)	309,210	5,167,276	16.71
North-Western States: Indiana, Illi- nois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa, (5)	250,295	2,734,945	10.92
Texas	237,321	212,592	.89
California	188,982	165,000	.87

Taking the thirty-one States together, their area is 1,486,917 square miles, and the average number of their inhabitants is 15.54 to the square mile. The total area of the United States is 3,230,572 square miles, and the average density of population is 7.2 to the square mile.

The areas assigned to those States and Territories in which public lands are situated, are doubtless correct, being taken from the records of the Land Office; but as to those attributed to the older States, the same means of verifying their accuracy, or the want of it, do not exist. But care has been taken to consult the best local authorities for ascertaining the extent of surface in those States; and as the figures adopted are found to agree with, or differ but slightly from those assumed to be correct at the General Land Office, it is probable they do not vary essentially from the exact truth.

The area of some of the States, as Maryland and Virginia, are stated considerably below the commonly assumed extent of their territory, which may be accounted for from the supposition that the portions of the surface within their exterior limits covered by large bodies of water, have been subtracted from the aggregate amount. This is known to be the case in regard to Maryland, the superficial extent of which, within the outlines of its boundaries, is 13,959 square miles; and is deemed probable with reference to Virginia, from the fact that many geographers have given its total area as high as 66,000 square miles.

It appears from the returns, that during the year ending on the

first of June, 1850, there escaped from their owners one thousand and eleven slaves, and that during the same period fourteen hundred and sixty-seven were manumitted. The number of both classes will appear in the following table:

Manumitted and Fugitive Slaves—1850.

	Manumitted.	Fugitives.
Delaware	277	26
Maryland	493	279
Virginia	218	83
Kentucky	152	96
Tennessee	45	70
North Carolina	2	64
South Carolina	2	16
Georgia	19	89
Florida	22	18
Alabama	16	29
Mississippi	6	41
Louisiana	159	90
Texas	5	29
Arkansas	1	21
Missouri	50	60
Totals	1,467	1,011

In connection with this statement, and as affecting the natural increase of the free colored population of the United States, it may be proper to remark, that during the year to which the census applies, the Colonization Society sent 562 colored emigrants to Liberia. In our calculations respecting the increase of the free colored population, we have considered that class of persons independent of these two causes, which respectively swell and diminish their number.

MORTALITY.

The statistics of mortality for the census year, represent the number of deaths occurring within the year as 320,433, the ratio being as one to 72.6 of the living population, or as ten to each 726 of the population. The rate of mortality in this statement, taken as a whole, seems so much less than that of any portion of Europe, that it must, at present, be received with some degree of allowance.

A life table for the State of Maryland has been prepared from a joint comparison of the abstracts of the returns of 1850. It comprises a very full interpretation of the laws of vitality indicated by the data for the year of enumeration, which may be regarded as one of average mortality. In the present case, the investigation relates exclusively to the white population of Maryland, irrespec-

tive of city or country residents, or of the sexes, or of foreign or indigenous extraction.

The results and derived tables are specified at length in the Report on Maryland. From the preliminary table of population there given, it would appear that the line of equal division of the living falls upon the age of twenty; one half of the white population being under, and the other half above twenty years of age; or, distributing with reference to three equal parts, one third of the population are under thirteen and a half years of age; one third are included between this and the age of twenty-nine, and the remaining third are above twenty-nine years of age. With respect to the deaths, the points of equal division fall upon ages several years younger than in the corresponding distributions of the living.

For exhibiting the law of mortality for individual lives, the data of the census were equated, and reduced to the simple case of 10,268 infants born on the same day, and commencing life simultaneously.

Assuming that like circumstances will continue to prevail during the years to come in this State, which may be regarded as certain, the population will continually be affected by the same rate of mortality. And hence we may safely estimate and predict, that, of the specified number of infants at the outset of life, 1,243 will perish prematurely in the first year of existence, and 9,025, or numbers in that proportion, will survive to enter upon their second year. A very considerable but decreasing mortality likewise prevails in the second and third years, leaving only 8,183, or about four fifths of the original number, to commence upon their fourth year. But after this age the juvenile system acquires more firmness, and a greater degree of the vigor and experience to guard against disease. At the age of twenty-one, 7,134 survive to enter upon a more active and responsible career of life; of whom 6,302 attain to "thirty-five"—the meridian of manhood. Proceeding onward for twenty years, to the age of fifty-five, only 4,727, or less than one half the original number, then survive. From this age the numbers are decimated more frequently, and the vacated places of the fallen are occupied by advancing generations; till, having passed the mental and physical changes in the round and mystery of life, so graphically portrayed in the "Seven Ages" of the dramatist, a few become centenarians, and linger on the verge of life, till virtually, at the age of one hundred and six years, all have closed their earthly existence.

The table for Maryland also comprises the "Expectations of Life," or the average number of years which the great mass of the white population live after a given present age. This arrangement

of the data is justly described as that which is of the most interest to society; for it points out the average number of years in which one member of the community with another participates in the pleasures and cares of life.

An individual, for instance, on attaining his thirtieth birth-day, has an expectancy of nearly thirty-five years. At fifty years of age the lease of time's estate (so to express the idea) is limited to a little more than nineteen years longer. The maximum expectation (52.86 years) is at the age of four in this table; in the well-known Carlisle table, it is represented to occur at the age of five; and at six in the Swedish table. The joint expectation for two lives, as in the marriage relation, or the average period during which both shall be living, may now be determined in like manner, and also for three or more lives of given ages.

It has been remarked that tables, properly constructed from sufficient data, never differ widely from each other. For this reason, and on account of their high value, insertion is likewise given in that Report to three standard European tables; from no one of which does the Maryland table differ in the comparison so much as they differ among themselves.

Indeed, the duration of life by the Maryland table is found to be almost an exact medium between the British Female Annuitant's and the Carlisle values; which affords strong proof of accuracy. From these tabular forms for Maryland, the probabilities of life can readily be ascertained in a given case, with the value of annuities, assurances, and other reversions dependent upon lives. And when extended to other localities, the results will eventually promote a most important national purpose, one which has long been desired—that of attaining a correct estimate of the standard of human life among different classes of population in this country.

Table of Deaths during the year ending 1st June, 1850.

	Nb. of Deaths.	Ratio to number living.
Maine	7,545	77.29
New Hampshire	4,268	74.49
Vermont	3,132	100.29
Massachusetts	19,414	51.23
Rhode Island	2,241	65.83
Connecticut	5,781	64.13
New York	44,339	69.85
New Jersey	6,467	75.70
Pennsylvania	28,318	81.63
Delaware	1,209	75.71
Maryland	9,594	60.77
Virginia	19,053	74.61

	No. of Deaths.	Ratio.
North Carolina	10,207	85.12
South Carolina	7,997	83.59
Georgia	9,920	91.33
Alabama	9,084	84.94
Mississippi	8,711	69.63
Louisiana	11,948	42.85
Texas	3,046	69.79
Florida	933	93.67
Kentucky	15,206	64.60
Tennessee	11,759	85.26
Missouri	12,211	55.85
Arkansas	2,987	70.18
Ohio	28,949	68.41
Indiana	12,728	77.65
Illinois	11,619	73.28
Michigan	4,520	87.97
Iowa	2,044	94.03
Wisconsin	2,884	105.82
California
Minnesota	30	202.56
Oregon	47	282.82
New Mexico	1,157	53.19
Utah	239	47.61
District of Columbia	846	61.09

AGRICULTURE.

The great amount of labor requisite to the extraction of the returns of agriculture, will admit, at this time, of presenting but limited accounts, though, perhaps, to some extent, of the most important separate interests.

The returns of the wheat crop, for many of the Western States, will not at all indicate the average crop of those States. This is especially the case with Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, from which, especially the former, the assistant marshals return a "short crop," to the extent of fifty per cent. throughout the whole State. The shortness of the wheat crop in Ohio, in 1849, is verified by returns made during the subsequent season, by authority of the Legislature. The causes which affected the wheat crop in those States were not without their influence in reducing that of Western Virginia and Western Pennsylvania to some considerable extent.

MANUFACTURES.

The period which has elapsed since the receipt of the returns has been so short, as to enable the office to make but a general report of the facts relating to a few of the most important manufactures. If, in some instances, the amount of "capital invested" in any branch of manufacture should seem too small, it must be

borne in mind that, where the product is of several kinds, the capital invested, not being divisible, is connected with the product of greatest consequence. This, to some extent, reduces the capital invested in the manufacture of bar iron, in such establishments where some other article of wrought iron predominates—sheet iron for example. The aggregate, however, of the capital invested in the various branches of wrought iron, will, it is confidently believed, be found correct.

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on the 1st of June, 1850—not to include any establishments producing less than the annual value of \$500—amounted, in round numbers, to

Value of raw material	\$530,000,000
Amount paid for labor	550,000,000
Value of manufactured articles	240,000,000
Number of persons employed	1,020,300,000
	1,050,000

More minute particulars respecting these separate interests will be found incorporated in tables A, B, C, D, E, F.

THE PRESS.

The statistics of the newspaper press form an interesting feature in the returns of the Seventh Census.

It appears that the whole number of newspapers and periodicals in the United States, on the first day of June, 1850, amounted to 2,800. Of these, 2,494 were fully returned, 234 had all the facts excepting circulation given, and 72 are estimated for California, the Territories, and for those that may have been omitted by the assistant marshals.

From calculations made on the statistics returned, and estimated circulations where they have been omitted, it appears that the aggregate circulation of these 2,800 papers and periodicals is about 5,000,000, and that the entire number of copies printed annually in the United States, amounts to 422,600,000.

The following table will show the number of daily, weekly, monthly, and other issues, with the aggregate circulation of each class:

	No.	Circulation.	No. of copies printed annually.
Dailies	350	750,000	235,000,000
Tri-weeklies	150	75,000	11,700,000
Semi-weeklies	125	80,000	8,320,000
Weeklies	2,000	2,875,000	149,500,000
Semi-monthlies	50	300,000	7,200,000
Monthlies	100	900,000	10,800,000
Quarterlies	25	29,000	80,000
	<u>2,800</u>	<u>5,000,000</u>	<u>422,600,000</u>

Four hundred and twenty-four papers are issued in the New England States, 876 in the Middle States, 716 in the Southern States, and 784 in the Western States.

The average circulation of papers in the United States is 1,785. There is one publication for every 7,161 free inhabitants in the United States and Territories.

PLAN OF UNITED STATES CENSUS.

In order that Congress may judge of the propriety of the plan in contemplation for preparing the tables of the population and other statistics, and be fully advised of any new features introduced into other portions of the work, it has been deemed proper to prepare, in printed form, the statistics of one State, of which copies will be laid before the members of both Houses for their inspection. For this purpose the State of Maryland has been selected, as best adapted, from its central position and combination of more of the various elements which enter into our interests, than any other State of its limited extent.

It has been my endeavor, according to the act, to arrange the facts "in the best and most convenient manner for use." To judge of the character of a statistical work in manuscript would require the long, laborious, and perhaps unsatisfactory investigation of a Congressional committee, and Congress would be possessed of no means of forming an independent opinion of the matter. It has been deemed the more proper to lay before Congress a printed copy, inasmuch as the expense of the entire work may readily be known, and some standard of excellence in execution clearly and intelligibly understood.

The variations from the plans heretofore adopted in the compilation of the decennial census, with every portion of which the facilities of comparison are maintained, consist:

1. In the form—that adopted being in conformity with the size and appearance of the "American Archives."

2. In accompanying the statistics of each State with a condensed account of the most important events connected with its history from its first settlement; exhibiting the progress of our whole social system, to the year 1850; also, in presenting as short accounts of each separate county, from the date of its organization; an account of its physical features, its rocks, minerals, streams, timber, water, and adaptation, naturally and artificially, to the purposes of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.

3. In the general geological account of the State.

4. In the account of its progress in population, from the First to the Seventh Census, inclusive, with tables of population, to make which correctly it has been necessary to refer to the original re-

turns of the census twenty and thirty years back, a reliance could not be placed on the figures officially given in the printed work.

5. In the review of its character for the health and longevity of its inhabitants, on account of the prevailing diseases and rates of mortality, with full tables, presenting a perfect history of the statistics of disease and mortality, and calculations of the value of life among the several classes.

6. In the number of new subjects embraced in the statistical details and in the manner of classification, so as to admit of extracting all the essential facts respecting the raw materials of each variety of manufactures, together with other features in which the statist will perceive variations from any previous census.

The term "census" applies more particularly to wealth and possessions than to numbers. It was so understood by the Romans, who first used the term. Livy, in his first book of the History of Rome, chap. 42, speaking of Servius Tullius, says:

"He then entered on the improvement of the civil polity of the utmost importance, for he instituted the census—an ordinance of the most salutary consequence in our empire, that was to rise to such a pitch of greatness, and according to which the several contributions in peace and war were to be discharged, not by every person indiscriminately, as formerly, but according to the proportion of their several properties."

And after describing the contributions required in proportion to the wealth of individuals, who appeared on a certain day every year, each in his own century, and gave in the amount of his property, he continues: "In all these instances, the burden was taken from off the poor, and laid on the rich."

The census was completed with great ceremonies and offering of sacrifices, termed closing the lustrum. In his fourth book, he speaks of a "survey" under the census, and a description of all the lands and houses, and the entire revenue of the Roman people (B.C. 440.) In the twelfth book, it is stated that "The senate then received the survey of twelve colonies, presented by the censors of those colonies." Tacitus mentions that Augustus wrote with his own hand an exact account of his dominions, which is termed a "census." Although the term "census in our Constitution is limited to, and contemplates a bare "enumeration" of inhabitants, such construction does not apply to the act of Congress, under which this office is organized. "An Act for taking the Seventh and subsequent Censuses," &c., the body of the act referring to the collection of statistics. But it is, perhaps, unnecessary to go back to antiquity for the meaning of the term census, or that of statistics, when we have such good modern authority not only as to the meaning of the terms, but the practical carrying

into effect what the most distinguished statisticians understand to be comprised within their meaning. The term "statistics" originated in England, with Sir John Sinclair, with respect to which, in the twentieth volume of his *Statistical Account of Scotland*, he remarks: "Many people were at first surprised at my using the new words statistics and statistical. The idea I annex to the term is an inquiry into the state of a country for the purpose of ascertaining the quantum of happiness enjoyed by its inhabitants, and the means of its future improvement." With such an understanding of the term, he applied the title "*Statistical Account*" to a work, perhaps, of the greatest magnitude, importance, and public utility ever attempted by one individual, devoted to a perfect history of Scotland. Among almost numberless other features, the *Statistical Account of Scotland* contains the ancient and modern names of each parish, its history, extent, the nature of the soil and surface, extent and description of sea-coast, lakes, rivers, islands, hills, rocks, caves, and woods, the climate, diseases, longevity, state of the church, manse, and glebe, the minerals, mineral springs, eminent men, antiquities, parochial records, with an account of the manners, habits, and customs of the people.

The collection of the materials occupied seven years and seven months, and their compilation engaged the attention of nine hundred learned men, and fill twenty volumes. Its publication led to a Parliamentary survey of England and Wales on somewhat similar principles. "If similar surveys," remarked the founder of British statistics, "were instituted in the other kingdoms of Europe, it might be the means of establishing on sure foundations the principles of that most important of all sciences, viz. political or statistical philosophy—the science which, in preference to any other, ought to be held in reverence. No science (he continues) can furnish to any mind capable of receiving useful information, so much real entertainment; none can yield such important hints for the improvement of agriculture, for the extension of our commercial industry, for regulating the conduct of individuals, or for extending the prosperity of the State; none can tend so much to promote the general happiness of the species."

The example of all enlightened Europe sustains the views of Sinclair, although falling far, very far, behind him in the extent embraced within their periodical statistics.

McCulloch, in the introductory chapter to the last edition of "*Smith's Wealth of Nations*," uses the following language: "To arrive at a true knowledge of the laws which regulate the production, distribution, and consumption of national wealth, we must draw our materials from a very wide surface, study man in every different situation—resort to the history of society, arts,

commerce, and government; to the works of philosophers and travellers; to everything, in short, fitted to throw light on the progress of opulence and civilization. We should mark the successive changes which have taken place in the fortunes and condition of the different ranks and orders of men in our own country and in others; should trace the rise, progress, and decline of population and industry; and, above all, should analyze and compare the influence of different institutions and regulations, and carefully discriminate the various circumstances wherein advancing and declining societies differ from each other. These investigations are so very complex and difficult, that it is not possible, perhaps, always to arrive at a right conclusion. But, though they may not be quite free from error, they are sufficient, when made with the requisite care and attention, to unfold the principal sources of national opulence and refinement, and of poverty and degradation; and however defective, they furnish the only available means for satisfactorily solving the various problems in the science of wealth, and for devising a scheme of public administration, fitted to insure the advancement of nations in the career of improvement."

The commissioners for the census of Ireland, in 1841, in the introduction to the census of that country, which comprises a folio of nearly 1000 pages, and was published in 1843, use the following very appropriate language: "We feel, in fact, that a census ought to be a social survey, not a bare enumeration."

In connection with the population of England, they have published many large folio volumes, containing maps of all the counties and boroughs in the kingdom. In other portions of Europe, the same expanded view is taken of what should constitute a statistical work.

The European statistical publications, in point of execution, far exceed our own, which have heretofore been most inconvenient and unwieldy volumes. The only volumes in its possession, which the shelves of the royal library of Belgium are not adapted to hold, are those of our last census, which have occupied a place on the floor, beneath the shelves, for several years. The inconvenient shape of these volumes has led to their destruction, and almost entire extermination. Their extreme rarity, at this time, leads me to believe that they have, in many instances, unfortunately, been used as so much waste paper, not esteemed worth the room they occupied.

Statement of the Population in each State and Territory decennially, commencing 1790 to 1850 inclusive.

STATES.	1790.	1800.	Ratio of Increase.	1810.	Ratio of Increase.	1820.	Ratio of Increase.	1830.	Ratio of Increase.	1840.	Ratio of Increase.	1850.	Ratio of Increase.	Representatives to each State.		No. Reps.
														No.	Fractions	
New England States.	96,540	151,719	57.1	228,705	50.7	298,335	30.4	399,455	33.9	501,793	26.2	583,188	16.22	6	20,802	7
	141,899	183,762	29.5	214,360	16.6	244,161	13.9	269,328	10.3	284,574	5.6	317,964	11.73	3	36,771	4
	85,416	154,465	80.8	217,713	41.	235,764	8.2	280,652	19.	291,948	4.	314,120	7.59	3	32,997	4
	378,717	423,245	11.7	472,040	11.5	523,287	10.9	610,408	16.6	737,699	20.8	994,499	34.81	11	*57,189	10
New England States.	69,110	69,122	11.4	77,031	11.4	83,059	7.8	97,199	17.	108,830	11.9	147,324	35.37	2	*53,813	2
	238,141	1,231,002	5.4	262,042	4.3	275,502	5.	297,675	8.1	309,978	4.1	370,791	19.61	4	*89,598	4
	1,009,823	1,933,315	92.1	1,471,891	19.3	1,659,808	12.8	1,954,717	17.7	2,234,822	14.3	2,728,106	22.07			
	340,120	586,756	72.5	959,049	63.4	1,372,812	43.1	1,918,608	39.7	2,428,921	26.6	3,097,394	27.52	33	4,271	34
Middle States.	184,139	211,949	15.1	245,555	15.9	277,575	13.	320,823	15.5	373,306	16.3	489,555	31.14	5	20,811	5
	434,373	602,365	38.6	810,091	34.4	1,049,458	29.5	1,348,233	28.5	1,724,033	27.9	2,311,786	34.09	25	*62,242	24
	59,096	64,273	8.7	72,674	13.	72,749	..	76,748	5.5	78,085	1.7	91,535	17.22	1	...	1
	319,728	341,548	6.8	380,546	11.4	407,350	7.	447,040	9.7	470,019	5.1	583,035	24.04	6	*78,232	6
Coast Plant-Ing States.	...	45,365	..	230,760	408.7	581,434	152.	937,903	61.3	1,519,467	62.	1,980,408	30.33	21	12,057	21
	1,337,456	1,852,256	38.49	2,698,675	45.69	3,761,378	39.37	5,049,355	34.24	6,593,831	30.58	8,553,713	29.72			
	249,073	345,591	38.7	415,115	20.1	502,741	18.1	581,185	15.6	594,398	2.3	668,507	12.46	5	45,858	7
	82,548	162,101	96.4	252,433	55.1	340,987	35.1	516,823	51.2	691,392	33.8	905,999	31.03	8	3,478	8
Central Slave States.	34,730	..	54,477	56.8	87,401	60.43	1	...	1
	...	8,550	..	40,352	356.	127,901	..	309,527	142.	590,756	90.8	771,671	30.62	7	*72,128	7
	76,556	..	153,407	87.	136,621	81.	375,651	175.	608,555	61.46	5	13,940	4
	331,621	516,542	55.76	784,456	51.86	1,200,484	53.03	2,157,739	40.6	352,411	63.3	517,739	46.91	4	44,900	4
Central Slave States.	748,308	880,200	17.6	974,622	10.7	1,065,379	9.3	1,211,405	13.7	1,239,797	2.3	1,421,061	14.66	13	14,140	15
	393,751	478,103	21.3	555,500	16.2	638,829	15.	753,987	15.5	753,419	2.1	868,903	15.32	8	3,690	9
	35,791	105,602	200.	261,727	147.8	492,813	61.5	681,904	61.3	829,213	21.6	1,002,625	20.91	10	*63,261	11
	73,077	220,955	200.	406,511	83.1	564,317	38.8	687,917	21.9	779,828	13.3	983,405	25.98	10	*54,433	10
Central Slave States.	20,845	..	66,586	219.5	140,455	110.9	383,702	173.2	608,043	77.75	7	*84,068	5
	14,273	..	30,388	112.9	97,574	221.1	209,639	114.85	2	3,384	3
	1,250,927	1,684,860	34.68	2,219,905	31.71	2,772,197	24.91	3,490,056	25.89	4,083,530	17.	5,167,976	26.53			

N.W.- States	Indiana.....	4,875	24,520	403.	147,178	500.2	343,031	132.	685,866	99.9	989,416	44.11	51,106	10
	Illinois.....	12,282	..	55,211	349.5	157,445	185.2	476,183	202.4	851,470	78.81	7,891	7
Free States	Michigan.....	4,762	..	8,896	86.8	31,639	255.6	212,267	570.9	397,654	87.33	22,730	4*
	Wisconsin.....	30,945	..	305,191	890.48	23,998	3
Territories	Iowa.....	43,112	..	192,214	345.84	4,752	2
	Texas.....	4,875	41,564	752.59	211,285	408.33	532,115	151.84	1,448,373	172.49	2,734,945	88.82	1,865	2
Free Territory	* California.....	212,592	2
	Dist. of Colum.....	14,093	24,023	36.8	33,039	37.5	39,834	29.2	43,712	23.3	51,687	18.24	2
S. service	Minnesota.....	165,000	2
	New Mexico.....	6,077	2
Total	Oregon.....	61,547	2
	Utah.....	13,293	2
Total	Seamen in U.....	11,380	2
	S. service.....	5,318	..	6,100	2
Total	Total.....	3,929,827	7,239,814	36.45	9,638,191	33.12	12,866,020	33.48	17,069,453	32.67	23,263,488	36.28	235	233

Whites	Whites.....	3,172,464	4,304,489	35.7	5,862,004	36.2	7,866,569	34.19	10,532,060	33.95	14,189,705	34.71	19,630,738	38.28
	Free Colored.....	59,466	108,395	82.2	186,446	72.2	233,524	25.25	319,599	36.85	386,292	20.86	428,661	10.96
Slaves	Slaves.....	697,897	803,057	27.9	1,191,364	33.4	1,538,098	29.1	2,009,043	30.61	2,487,356	23.8	3,204,089	28.81
	Seamen in U. S. serv.	15,318	..	+ 6,100
Total Free	Total Free.....	3,929,827	5,305,941	..	7,239,814	..	9,638,191	..	12,866,020	..	17,069,453	..	23,263,488	..
	Total colored pop.....	3,231,930	4,412,884	36.4	6,048,450	37.	8,100,093	33.92	10,856,977	34.03	14,582,097	34.31	20,059,399	37.56
Total	Total colored pop.....	757,363	1,001,452	32.2	1,377,810	37.6	1,771,622	28.58	2,328,642	31.44	2,873,648	23.4	3,632,750	26.41

Statement of Population by Classes decennially, from 1790 to 1850 inclusive.

* The population of California is set down at 105,000 as an approximation to the real population, which may be essentially varied by complete returns. Should the returns vary from our estimate so far as to reduce the population of California 30,000, South Carolina will be entitled to a member additional, as being next above on the list of fractions. The officials of California will *slightly* affect the calculation respecting the aggregate increase of the free population for the year 1850. Ratio of representation, 93.731.

year 1850. Ratio of representation, 93,731.

Population of the United States, and Representation in Thirty-third Congress.

STATE.	Whites.	Free colored.	Total free population.	Slaves.	Total population.	Representative population.	Representatives of each State.	
							No.	Fractions.
Maine.....	581,863	1,325	583,188	...	583,188	583,188	6	20,802
New Hampshire.....	317,489	475	317,964	...	317,964	317,964	3	36,771
Vermont.....	313,411	709	314,120	...	314,120	314,120	3	32,927
Massachusetts.....	985,704	8,795	994,499	...	994,499	994,499	11	*57,189
Rhode Island.....	144,000	3,544	147,544	...	147,544	147,544	2	*53,813
Connecticut.....	363,305	7,486	370,791	...	370,791	370,791	4	*69,598
New York.....	3,049,457	47,837	3,097,394	...	3,097,394	3,097,394	33	4,271
Pennsylvania.....	2,258,463	53,323	2,311,786	...	2,311,786	2,311,786	25	*62,242
Ohio.....	1,956,108	24,300	1,980,408	...	1,980,408	1,980,408	21	12,057
Indiana.....	977,693	10,788	988,416	...	988,416	988,416	11	*51,106
Illinois.....	846,104	5,366	851,470	...	851,470	851,470	9	7,891
Michigan.....	395,097	2,557	397,654	...	397,654	397,654	4	22,730
Wisconsin.....	304,565	636	305,191	...	305,191	305,191	3	23,998
Iowa.....	191,879	335	192,214	...	192,214	192,214	2	4,752
California (estimated).....	163,300	1,800	165,000	...	165,000	165,000	2	...
New Jersey.....	466,240	23,093	489,333	*222	489,555	489,466	5	20,811
Delaware.....	71,289	17,287	89,246	2,259	91,535	90,619	1	...
Maryland.....	418,590	74,077	492,667	90,368	583,035	546,887	6	*78,232
Virginia.....	895,304	53,829	949,133	242,528	1,421,661	1,232,649	13	14,146
North Carolina.....	553,295	27,196	580,491	288,412	868,903	753,538	8	3,690
South Carolina.....	274,623	8,800	283,523	384,984	668,507	514,513	5	45,858
Georgia.....	321,438	2,860	324,318	361,681	905,999	753,326	8	3,478
Alabama.....	426,507	2,272	428,779	342,892	771,671	634,514	7	*72,128
Mississippi.....	295,758	899	296,657	309,898	606,555	482,595	5	13,940
Louisiana.....	255,416	17,537	272,953	244,766	517,739	419,824	4	44,900
Tennessee.....	756,893	6,371	763,164	239,461	1,002,625	906,840	10	*63,261
Kentucky.....	761,688	9,736	771,424	210,981	982,405	888,012	10	*54,433
Missouri.....	592,077	2,544	594,621	87,422	682,043	647,074	7	*84,688
Arkansas.....	162,068	589	162,657	46,932	209,639	190,846	2	3,384
Florida.....	47,167	925	48,092	39,309	87,401	71,667	1	...
Texas.....	154,100	331	154,431	58,161	212,592	189,327	2	1,865
District of Columbia.....	38,027	9,972	48,000	3,667	51,667	51,667
Utah (Territory).....	11,330	24	11,354	26	11,380	11,380
Minnesota (Territory).....	6,038	39	6,077	...	6,077	6,077
New Mexico (Territory).....	61,530	17	61,547	...	61,547	61,547
Oregon (Territory).....	13,087	206	13,293	...	13,293	13,293
Aggregate population of the United States.....	19,630,738	428,661	20,059,399	3,204,459	23,263,858	23,263,488	...	* Have the addition on account of the fractions.

* "Apprentices" by the "Act to Abolish Slavery," passed 18th April, 1846.

Population of the principal Cities of the United States, from 1790 to 1850.

CITIES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1845.*	1850.
Portland, Maine.....	3,677	7,169	8,581	12,601	15,218	26,819
Bangor, ".....	850	1,921	2,867	8,627	14,441
Manchester, New Hampshire.....	615	761	877	3,235	18,933
Boston, Massachusetts.....	18,038	24,027	32,250	43,298	61,392	93,383	114,366	138,788
Lowell, ".....	6,474	20,796	28,841	32,964
Springfield, ".....	2,767	3,914	6,784	10,985	21,602
Salem, ".....	7,921	9,457	12,613	12,721	13,886	15,082	18,846
Lawrence, ".....	18,341
Providence, Rhode Island.....	7,614	10,071	11,767	16,892	23,171	41,513
New Haven, Connecticut.....	5,772	7,147	10,180	14,890	22,539
Hartford, ".....	3,955	4,726	7,074	12,793	17,966
New York, New York.....	33,131	60,489	96,373	123,706	203,007	312,710	371,102	515,394
Brooklyn, ".....	3,298	4,402	7,175	12,042	36,233	59,566
Albany, ".....	3,498	5,349	9,356	12,630	24,238	33,721	41,139	50,771
Buffalo, ".....	1,508	2,085	8,653	18,213	40,266
Rochester, ".....	1,502	9,269	20,191	29,773	36,501
Williamsburg, ".....	1,630	5,680	25,265	30,786
Troy, ".....	3,885	5,264	11,401	19,334	21,709	28,785
Syracuse, ".....	6,502	92,235
Utica, ".....	2,972	8,323	12,782	17,240
Newark, New Jersey.....	6,507	10,953	17,290	34,140	38,885
Paterson, ".....	7,596	21,341
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.....	42,530	70,287	96,664	108,116	167,188	258,037	409,353
Pittsburg, ".....	1,565	7,248	7,948	12,542	21,115	169,012
Baltimore, Maryland.....	13,503	26,614	46,555	62,738	80,635	134,379	40,001
Washington, District of Columbia.....	3,210	8,208	13,247	18,327	23,364	27,453
Richmond, Virginia.....	5,537	9,735	12,046	16,060	20,153	42,806
Charleston, South Carolina.....	16,359	18,712	24,711	24,480	30,289	39,261	97,841
Savannah, Georgia.....	7,523	9,748	11,214	20,513
Mobile, Alabama.....	3,194	12,672	17,502
Nashville, Tennessee.....	5,566	6,929	43,217
Nashville, Kentucky.....	1,357	4,012	10,352	21,210	116,108
Louisville, Kentucky.....	2,540	9,644	24,831	46,338	17,367
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	750	9,644	24,831	24,831	6,048	17,074
Columbus, ".....	2,435	6,071	21,037
Cleveland, ".....	547	606	1,076	9,102	28,289
Cleveland, ".....	1,422	2,222	4,479	20,026
Detroit, Michigan.....	1,700	82,744
Chicago, Illinois.....	119,285
Milwaukee, Wisconsin.....	15,000
St. Louis, Missouri.....
New Orleans, Louisiana.....	4,598	5,852	16,469	63,491
San Francisco, California.....	17,242	27,176	46,310	102,193

* By the State Census of that year.

A.—AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS.

STATE.	Acres of land improved.	Value of farm- ing imple- ments and machinery.	Value of live stock.	Bushels of wheat.	Bushels of Indian corn.	Tobacco, pounds of.	Ginned cot- ton, bales of 400 lbs. each.	Wool, pounds of.	Wine, gallons of.
Maine.....	2,019,593	\$2,363,517	\$9,831,488	367,980	1,741,715	1,366,866	306
New Hampshire.....	2,251,388	2,314,125	8,871,901	185,658	1,573,670	1,105,476	35
Vermont.....	2,322,923	2,774,959	11,292,748	493,666	1,625,776	3,492,087	140
Massachusetts.....	2,127,924	3,173,809	9,619,964	29,784	2,326,167	576,736	4,122
Rhode Island.....	337,672	473,385	1,466,636	39	516,133	111,937	842
Connecticut.....	1,734,277	2,043,026	7,353,996	40,167	1,996,462	519,529	3,346
New York.....	12,285,077	22,917,563	74,672,356	13,073,357	17,844,808	10,021,507	6,483
New Jersey.....	1,770,337	4,267,124	10,078,264	1,308,316	8,605,386	373,832	517
Pennsylvania.....	8,619,631	14,931,993	42,146,711	15,482,191	19,707,702	4,784,367	23,539
Delaware.....	580,862	510,279	1,849,381	482,511	3,145,533	57,768	145
Maryland.....	2,797,905	2,463,443	7,997,634	4,494,650	11,104,631	480,226	1,431
District of Columbia.....	17,083	40,220	71,573	17,370	65,280	863
Virginia.....	10,360,135	7,021,762	32,656,659	11,212,616	35,254,319	56,803,227	3,947	2,860,765	5,413
North Carolina.....	5,443,137	4,056,006	17,837,108	2,147,899	28,286,999	12,058,137	98,028	913,389	10,801
South Carolina.....	4,074,855	4,143,709	15,060,015	1,066,278	16,272,308	73,235	300,901	487,243	3,680
Georgia.....	6,378,479	5,894,150	25,278,416	1,088,534	30,080,099	423,924	499,091	990,021	796
Florida.....	349,423	675,885	2,945,668	1,225	1,993,462	982,584	45,078	23,235	10
Alabama.....	4,435,614	5,125,663	21,690,112	294,044	28,754,048	164,990	564,490	657,118	920
Mississippi.....	3,489,640	5,759,738	19,303,393	215,181	21,836,154	48,349	494,774	550,057	301
Louisiana.....	1,567,998	11,326,310	10,983,508	84	10,915,051	23,422	163,034	105,393
Texas.....	635,913	2,095,308	10,263,086	42,448	5,796,735	60,770	55,945	122,118	94
Arkansas.....	780,333	1,594,941	6,728,254	193,902	8,857,296	224,164	192,635	181,427	10
Tennessee.....	5,087,957	5,351,178	29,134,193	1,638,470	52,137,863	20,144,360	192,635	1,340,833	204
Kentucky.....	6,068,633	5,388,092	23,892,386	2,184,763	58,922,788	55,765,239	1,689	2,246,168	4,202
Ohio.....	9,730,650	12,716,153	43,276,187	14,967,056	59,788,750	10,480,907	10,089,607	44,834
Michigan.....	1,923,582	2,764,171	8,005,429	4,918,706	5,620,215	2,225	2,047,364	1,443
Indiana.....	5,019,822	6,748,722	22,398,965	6,625,474	52,887,564	1,035,146	2,502,763	13,004
Illinois.....	5,114,041*	6,340,826	24,317,954	9,433,965	57,179,283	844,139	2,129,139	2,343
Missouri.....	2,924,991	3,965,945	19,766,851	2,966,928	36,069,543	17,100,984	1,615,860	10,563
Iowa.....	824,682	1,172,869	3,589,275	1,530,361	8,656,799	6,049	373,898	490
Wisconsin.....	1,011,308	1,701,047	4,594,717	4,292,208	1,953,378	768	243,065	68
California.....	34,312	88,593	3,456,725	98,282	90,062	1,000	4,800
Minnesota.....	5,035	15,981	92,859	1,401	16,725	85
Oregon.....	132,857	183,423	1,876,189	211,943	2,918	325	29,686
Utah.....	15,219	78,495	533,951	103,441	9,144	8,897
New Mexico.....	161,296	78,217	1,504,497	196,375	353,795	1,118	32,641	2,053
Total.....	112,433,684	151,869,627	542,545,149	101,607,623	592,020,591	200,099,288	2,484,531	52,451,903	142,528

STATES.	Butter, pounds of.	Cheese, pounds of.	Hay, tons of.	Hemp, dew-rol- ted, tons of.	Hemp, water-rol- ted, tons of.	Flaxseed, bushels of.	Maple sugar, pounds of.	Cane sugar hhds. of 1,000 lbs.	Value of home- made manufac- tures.
Maine.....	8,488,334	2,201,105	794,780	362	87,541	\$510,998
New Hampshire.....	6,977,056	3,196,563	598,854	94	1,292,459	393,455
Vermont.....	12,128,095	6,755,006	763,579	307	5,159,641	261,369
Massachusetts.....	7,825,337	7,134,461	645,749	5	72	768,596	210,076
Rhode Island.....	1,066,625	296,748	73,353	26,098
Connecticut.....	6,620,579	4,512,019	499,706	9,775	37,781	188,995
New York.....	82,043,823	49,765,905	3,714,734	81	20	53,824	10,310,764	1,277,170
New Jersey.....	9,070,710	500,819	429,119	13,353	5,886	110,350
Pennsylvania.....	40,534,741	2,395,279	1,836,265	173	686	43,627	2,218,644	753,104
Delaware.....	1,055,308	3,187	30,159	570	858	38,121
Maryland.....	3,806,160	3,975	157,956	63	2,446	47,740	111,828
District of Columbia.....	14,869	1,974	75
Virginia.....	11,089,379	436,292	369,098	3,735	1,931	52,318	1,227,665	2,156,312
North Carolina.....	4,144,258	95,043	145,180	13	478	38,183	27,448	2,008,884
South Carolina.....	2,979,975	4,810	95,497	11	200	150	909,546
Georgia.....	4,640,559	46,976	23,449	73	622	50	1,644	1,838,968
Florida.....	375,853	18,324	2,620	47,411	74,362
Alabama.....	4,008,811	31,412	32,685	70	67	643	8,242	1,934,120
Mississippi.....	4,388,112	20,314	12,517	21	110	278	1,105,195
Louisiana.....	20,672	260	262,486	138,773
Texas.....	685,136	92,018	8,327	16	7,017	265,536
Arkansas.....	2,319,574	98,440	3,924	145	695	8,825	644,928
Tennessee.....	1,854,104	38,440	72,942	405	535	19,405	159,647	3,168,116
Kentucky.....	8,130,686	179,577	115,296	37,168	2,685	80,458	388,525	2,487,493
Ohio.....	10,115,267	21,350,478	1,360,636	628	464	185,598	4,521,643	1,096,601
Michigan.....	7,034,794	1,012,551	394,717	40	14	1,186	2,493,897	354,936
Indiana.....	12,748,186	686,986	402,791	794	775	35,803	9,921,638	1,647,200
Illinois.....	12,605,554	1,923,755	586,011	1,099	1,898	11,873	246,078	1,218,211
Missouri.....	7,692,499	202,122	116,743	17,907	5,351	13,641	178,750	1,663,016
Iowa.....	2,168,188	209,840	80,055	2	110	1,959	77,807	221,292
Wisconsin.....	888,216	440,961	295,927	100	834	661,969	57,506
California.....	705	150	2,038	2,950	2,500
Minnesota.....	1,100	2,019
Oregon.....	211,464	36,980	373
Utah.....	74,064	32,646	4,988	5
New Mexico.....	101	5,887
Total.....	311,998,180	103,200,534	13,622,963	61,413	15,835	566,413	32,777,127	327,928	27,544,679

B.—COTTON GOODS.

States.	No. establishments in operation.	Capital invested.	Bales cotton.	Tons coal.	Value of all raw material.	No. hands employed.		Entire wages per month.		Average wages per month.		Value of entire products.	Yards Sheetings, &c. &c.	Sundries.
						Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Maine.....	12	\$3,339,700	31,531	2,921	\$1,573,110	780	2,959	\$92,805	\$35,973	\$20 35	\$12 15	\$2,596,356	32,852,556
N. Hampshire.	44	10,950,500	83,026	7,679	4,839,429	2,911	9,211	75,713	124,131	25 00	13 47	8,830,619	113,106,247	149,700 lbs. yarn.
Vermont.	9	202,500	2,243	114,415	94	147	1,460	1,861	25 00	12 65	196,100	1,651,000	53,050 "
Massachusetts.	213	28,455,630	223,607	46,345	11,229,309	9,293	19,437	212,892	264,514	22 90	13 60	19,712,461	298,751,392	4,353,660 "
Rhode Island.	158	6,675,000	50,713	13,116	3,484,579	4,959	5,916	92,282	76,656	18 00	12 95	6,447,120	96,725,612	1,902,980 lbs. thr'd&y'n.
Connecticut....	128	4,219,100	39,483	2,866	2,500,062	2,708	3,478	51,679	41,060	19 09	11 80	4,257,522	51,780,700	950,000 lbs. yarn.
New York.....	86	4,176,920	37,778	1,539	1,985,973	2,632	3,688	48,244	35,699	18 32	9 68	3,591,989	44,901,475	2,180,600 "
New Jersey....	21	1,483,500	14,437	4,467	666,445	616	1,096	11,078	10,487	17 98	9 56	1,109,324	8,122,580	2,000,000 "
Pennsylvania..	208	4,528,925	44,162	24,189	3,152,530	3,364	4,099	63,642	40,656	17 85	9 91	5,325,262	45,746,790	5,308,561 "
Delaware.....	12	460,100	4,730	1,920	312,068	413	425	6,326	4,926	15 31	11 58	538,439	3,521,636	533,000 "
Maryland.....	24	2,236,000	23,325	9,212	1,165,579	1,008	2,014	15,546	19,108	15 42	9 48	2,120,504	27,883,923	46,000 "
Virginia.....	27	1,903,900	17,785	4,805	898,375	1,275	1,688	12,983	11,791	10 18	6 98	1,486,384	15,640,107	1,755,915 "
North Carolina	28	1,058,800	13,617	531,903	442	1,177	5,153	7,216	11 65	6 13	831,342	2,470,110	2,267,000 "
South Carolina	18	857,200	9,929	295,971	399	620	5,565	5,151	13 94	8 30	748,338	6,563,737	1,348,343 "
Georgia.....	35	1,736,156	20,230	1,000	900,419	873	1,399	12,725	10,352	14 57	7 39	2,135,044	7,209,292	4,198,351 "
Florida.....	67	80,000	600	30,000	28	67	900	335	32 14	5 00	49,920	624,000
Alabama.....	12	651,900	5,208	237,081	346	369	4,053	2,946	11 71	7 98	382,260	3,081,000	790,000 "
Mississippi....	2	38,000	430	21,500	19	17	270	101	14 21	5 94	30,500	171,000 "
Louisiana.....
Texas.....
Arkansas.....	..	16,500	170	8,975	13	18	190	106	14 61	5 88	16,637	81,250 "
Tennessee....	33	669,600	6,411	3,010	297,500	310	581	3,394	3,730	10 94	6 42	510,624	363,250	2,326,250 "
Kentucky.....	8	239,000	3,760	720	180,907	181	221	2,707	2,070	14 95	9 36	273,439	1,003,000	725,000 "
Ohio.....	8	297,000	4,270	2,152	237,060	132	269	2,191	2,534	16 59	9 42	394,700	280,000	433,000 "
Michigan.....
Indiana.....	..	43,000	675	300	28,220	38	57	495	386	13 02	6 77	44,200	300,000 "
Illinois.....
Missouri.....	2	102,000	2,160	1,658	86,446	75	80	820	800	10 93	10 00	142,900	13,260 bales batting.
Iowa.....
Wisconsin....
California....
Dist. of Colum.	1	85,000	900	67,000	41	103	575	825	14 02	8 00	100,000	1,400,000
Total.....	1,094	\$74,501,031	641,240	121,099	\$34,835,055	33,150	59,136	653,778	\$703,414	\$61,869,184	763,678,407	27,873,600 lbs. and bales.

STATE.	No. estab- lishments	Capital in- vested.	Pounds of wool used.	Tons of coal.	Value of all raw material.		No. hands employed.		Entire wages per month.		Average wages per month.		Value of entire products.	Yards of cloth manuf- actured.	Sundries.
					Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Fem.			
Maine.....	36	\$467,600	1,438,434	..	310	314	\$6,998	\$3,697	\$22 57	\$11 77	\$753,300	1,023,020	1,200 lbs. yarn.
N. Hampshire...	61	2,437,700	3,604,103	3,600	926	1,201	21,177	17,451	92 86	4 53	2,127,745	9,712,840	165,200 "
Vermont.....	72	886,300	2,229,952	..	683	710	16,712	8,398	24 46	11 81	2,127,745	2,830,400	..
Massachusetts...	119	2,069,342	2,229,952	15,400	6,167	4,963	141,533	70,581	22 95	14 22	12,770,565	25,865,458	749,550 "
Rhode Island....	45	1,013,000	4,103,307	2,032	987	771	20,431	11,708	20 70	15 18	9,381,825	8,612,400	46,000 "
Connecticut.....	149	3,773,950	9,414,100	7,912	2,907	2,581	70,141	33,216	24 12	12 86	6,465,216	9,408,777	..
New York.....	249	4,459,370	12,538,756	..	4,262	2,412	85,147	28,377	19 97	11 76	7,030,604	7,924,252	261,700 "
New Jersey.....	41	404,274	1,510,259	1,889	411	467	10,367	4,192	25 22	8 60	1,164,446	771,100	350,000 "
Pennsylvania....	380	3,005,064	7,560,379	10,777	3,490	2,236	67,139	23,279	19 23	10 41	5,321,866	10,099,234	1,941,621 "
Delaware.....	8	148,500	393,000	45	122	18	2,293	312	18 79	17 33	251,010	152,000	..
Maryland.....	38	244,000	430,300	100	262	100	4,875	1,189	18 60	11 89	295,140	373,100	..
Virginia.....	121	392,640	1,554,110	357	478	190	8,688	1,883	18 17	9 91	841,013	2,037,025	398,705 "
North Carolina...	1	18,000	30,000	..	15	15	270	105	18 00	7 00	23,750	34,000	..
South Carolina...
Georgia.....	3	68,000	153,816	..	40	38	1,099	536	27 47	14 10	88,750	340,660	..
Florida.....
Alabama.....
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....
Texas.....	1	8,000	30,000	..	4	4	20 00	20 00	15,000	14,000	4,000 blankets.
Arkansas.....
Tennessee.....	4	10,900	6,200	..	15	265	12	17 66	6 00	6,310	..	2,920 hats.
Kentucky.....	25	249,820	673,900	..	256	62	3,919	689	15 30	11 11	318,819	878,034	..
Ohio.....	130	870,220	1,657,726	2,110	903	298	18,191	3,250	20 14	10 90	1,111,027	1,374,087	65,000 lbs. yarn.
Michigan.....	15	94,000	162,250	..	78	51	1,089	585	21 65	11 47	90,242	141,570	..
Indiana.....	33	171,545	413,350	90	120,486	189	4,122	630	21 81	11 05	205,802	225,500	104,000 "
Illinois.....	16	154,500	396,964	987	115,367	124	2,728	676	22 00	12 52	206,572	306,995	137,000 "
Missouri.....	1	20,000	80,000	1,071	15	10	480	65	32 00	6 50	56,000	12,000	6,000 prs. blankets.
Iowa.....	1	10,000	14,500	..	7	78	..	11 14	..	13,000	14,000	..
Wisconsin.....	9	31,225	134,200	..	25	562	..	22 48	..	87,992	36,000	74,350 "
California.....
Dist. of Colum....	1	700	5,000	..	2	60	..	30 00	..	2,400	10,000	..
Total.....	1,559	\$28,118,650	70,862,829	46,370	22,678	16,574	\$489,039	\$210,901	\$43,207,555	82,206,652	4,294,326 lbs. yarn.

D.—PIG IRON.

STATE.	No. estab-lish-ment in operation.	Capital in-vested.	Tons ore used.	Tons mineral coal.	Bushels coke and charcoal.	Value raw material, fuel, &c.	No. of hands employed.		Entire wages per month.		Average wages per month.		Tons of pig iron made.	Value of other products.	Value of entire products.
							Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.			
Maine.....	1	\$214,000	2,907	213,970	\$14,939	71	..	\$1,562	..	\$22 00	..	1,484	\$....	\$36,616
N. Hampshire ..	1	2,000	500	50,000	4,900	10	..	180	..	18 00	..	200	68,000
Vermont.....	3	625,000	7,676	150	326,437	40,175	100	..	2,908	..	22 08	..	3,200	295,123
Massachusetts ..	6	469,000	27,909	1,855,000	185,741	263	..	7,238	..	27 52	..	12,287
Rhode Island
Connecticut.....	13	225,000	35,450	2,870,000	289,225	148	..	3,967	..	26 80	..	13,420	20,000	415,600
New York.....	18	605,000	46,385	20	3,000,074	321,027	505	..	12,625	..	25 00	..	23,032	12,800	597,920
New Jersey.....	10	967,000	51,266	20,865	1,621,000	332,707	600	..	12,720	..	21 20	..	24,031	..	560,544
Pennsylvania.....	180	8,570,425	877,283	316,060	27,505,186	3,732,437	9,285	9	201,039	46	21 65	5 11	285,702	40,000	6,071,513
Delaware.....
Maryland.....	18	1,420,000	99,866	14,088	3,707,500	560,725	1,370	..	27,535	..	20 14	..	43,641	96,000	1,056,400
Virginia.....	29	513,800	67,319	39,982	1,311,000	158,307	1,115	14	14,232	96	12 76	6 86	22,163	..	521,924
North Carolina..	2	25,000	900	150,000	27,900	26	5	208	..	8 00	4 40	400	..	12,500
South Carolina..
Georgia.....	3	26,000	5,189	430,000	25,840	135	3	2,355	15	17 44	5 00	900	28,000	57,300
Florida.....
Alabama.....	3	11,000	1,838	145,000	6,770	40	..	700	..	17 50	..	522	5,000	22,500
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....
Texas.....
Arkansas.....
Tennessee.....	23	1,021,400	88,810	177,167	160,000	254,900	1,713	109	21,958	558	12 81	5 11	30,420	41,900	676,100
Kentucky.....	21	924,700	72,010	..	4,576,269	260,132	1,845	10	37,325	47	20 23	4 70	24,245	10,000	604,037
Ohio.....	35	1,503,800	140,610	21,730	5,428,800	630,037	2,415	..	59,129	..	24 48	..	52,658	..	1,255,850
Michigan.....	1	15,000	2,700	..	185,000	14,000	25	..	875	..	35 00	..	660	6,000	21,000
Indiana.....	2	72,000	5,200	..	310,000	24,400	88	..	2,290	..	26 00	..	1,850	..	58,000
Illinois.....	2	65,000	5,500	..	170,000	15,500	150	..	3,310	..	22 06	..	2,700	..	70,200
Missouri.....	5	619,000	37,000	55,180	..	97,367	334	..	8,112	..	24 28	..	19,250	..	314,600
Iowa.....
Wisconsin.....	1	15,000	3,000	..	150,000	8,250	60	..	1,800	..	30 00	..	1,000	..	27,000
California.....
Dist. of Colum..
Total.....	377	\$17,346,425	1,579,309	645,242	54,165,236	\$7,005,289	20,298	150	\$421,435	\$784	564,755	259,700	\$12,748,777

E.—CASTINGS.

STATE.	No. estab-lish-ments in operation.	Capital in-vested.	Tons pig iron.	Tons old metal.	Tons of ore.	Tons mineral coal.	Bushels coke and charco'l.	Value raw material, fuel, &c.	No. of hands employed.		Average wages per month.		Tons castings made.	Value of other products.	Value of entire products.
									Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.			
Maine.....	25	\$150,100	3,591	245	..	1,319	14,000	\$112,570	243	1	\$29 00	\$5 00	3,691	\$.....	\$265,000
N. Hampshire.....	26	232,700	5,673	500	..	1,680	90,500	177,060	374	..	33 05	..	5,764	27,700	371,710
Vermont.....	26	290,730	5,279	274	..	1,066	198,400	160,603	381	..	28 27	..	5,000	87,770	460,831
Massachusetts.....	68	1,499,050	31,134	3,361	..	12,401	3,500	1,057,904	1,596	..	30 90	..	32,074	..	2,235,635
Rhode Island.....	20	428,800	8,918	4,670	4,000	258,267	800	..	29 63	..	8,358	119,500	738,705
Connecticut.....	60	580,800	11,396	337	..	7,592	30,600	351,369	942	7	27 02	8 00	11,210	70,000	981,400
New York.....	323	4,632,482	108,945	3,212	..	92,755	181,190	2,393,768	5,925	..	27 49	..	104,588	..	5,921,980
New Jersey.....	45	593,250	10,666	350	..	5,444	175,800	301,048	803	..	24 09	..	10,259	..	686,430
Pennsylvania.....	320	3,422,924	69,501	819	..	49,228	276,855	2,372,467	4,782	1	27 55	6 00	57,810	661,160	5,354,881
Delaware.....	13	373,500	4,440	4,967	..	153,852	250	..	23 36	..	3,630	35,000	267,462
Maryland.....	16	359,100	7,320	5,000	30,000	259,190	761	..	27 50	..	6,244	80,000	685,000
Virginia.....	54	471,160	7,114	205	..	7,875	71,600	297,014	840	9	19 91	9 44	5,577	..	674,416
North Carolina.....	5	11,500	192	6,375	8,341	15	..	23 46	..	172	..	12,867
South Carolina.....	6	185,700	169	..	2,800	..	405,560	29,128	153	2	13 59	4 00	1,286	..	87,683
Georgia.....	4	35,000	440	100	9,800	11,950	39	..	27 43	..	415	..	46,200
Florida.....
Alabama.....	10	216,625	2,348	31,300	102,085	212	..	30 05	..	1,915	..	271,126
Mississippi.....	8	100,000	1,197	248	92,000	50,370	112	..	37 91	..	924	2,800	117,400
Louisiana.....	8	255,000	1,660	3,905	..	75,300	347	..	35 60	..	1,570	4,000	312,500
Texas.....	2	16,000	250	250	..	8,400	35	..	43 43	..	200	15,000	55,000
Arkansas.....
Tennessee.....	16	139,500	1,682	..	5,050	24,690	13,200	90,035	261	8	17 96	4 50	3,384	..	264,325
Kentucky.....	20	563,200	9,731	2,649	432,750	995,533	558	20	24 89	4 15	5,888	..	744,316
Ohio.....	183	2,063,650	37,555	1,843	2,000	30,006	355,120	1,199,790	2,758	..	27 32	..	37,399	208,700	3,069,350
Michigan.....	63	195,450	2,494	901	16,200	91,865	337	..	28 68	..	2,070	25,616	279,697
Indiana.....	14	82,900	1,968	132	29,600	66,918	143	..	25 74	..	1,757	149,430	149,430
Illinois.....	29	260,400	4,818	50	..	1,412	12,500	172,330	332	..	28 50	..	4,160	89,250	441,185
Missouri.....	6	187,000	5,100	200	..	2,598	..	133,114	297	..	19 63	..	5,200	..	336,495
Iowa.....	3	5,500	81	200	2,924	17	..	32 35	..	71	2,600	8,500
Wisconsin.....	15	116,350	1,371	15	..	595	2,700	86,930	228	..	26 73	..	1,342	64,025	216,195
California.....	1	5,000	75	25	..	8,530	3	..	23 33	..	75	..	20,740
Dist. of Colum.....	2	14,000	545	80	..	18,100	27	..	27 05	..	512	11,000	41,696
Total.....	1,391	\$17,416,361	345,553	11,416	9,850	190,891	2,413,750	\$10,346,355	23,541	48	322,745	..	322,745	\$1,524,121	\$35,108,155

F.—WROUGHT IRON.

STATE.	No. establis ^h ms in operation.	Capital in- vested.	Tons pig metal.	Tons blooms used.	Tons ore used.	Tons mineral coal.	Bushels coke and charcoal.	Value raw material used.	No. of hands employed.	Average wages per month.	Tons wrought iron made.	Value of other products.	Value of entire products.
		\$.....	\$.....	Males.	Fem.	\$.....		\$.....
Maine.....	2	4,000	145	525	2,625	50,000	5,600	6	32 00	110	10,400
N. Hampshire.....	8	62,700	750	337,000	66,194	57	31 05	2,045	163,986
Vermont.....	6	610,300	7,030	11,022	78,500	221,194	260	22 50	6,730	428,320
Massachusetts.....	1	208,000	3,001	1,644	6,000	111,750	111,750	920	26 00	2,650	222,400
Rhode Island.....	18	529,500	7,081	5,062	783,600	358,780	374	31 59	6,325	5,900	667,560
Connecticut.....	60	1,131,300	8,530	44,642	13,908	5,354,150	838,314	1,037	26 00	13,636	195,000	1,423,968
New York.....	53	1,016,843	10,430	14,549	4,507	320,950	320,950	7	27 78	8,162	629,273
Pennsylvania.....	131	7,620,066	163,702	20,405	325,967	3,939,998	5,488,391	6,764	27 68	182,506	219,500	8,902,907
Delaware.....	2	15,000	510	60	228,000	19,500	50	24 19	550	55,000
Maryland.....	17	780,650	10,172	3,389	10,455	246,000	439,511	568	23 33	10,000	771,431
Virginia.....	39	791,211	17,296	2,500	60,515	103,000	591,448	1,295	23 62	15,358	1,254,995
North Carolina.....	19	103,000	4,650	357,900	28,114	173	10 37	850	66,980
South Carolina.....	3	9,200	100	76,600	5,986	26	11 35	90	15,384
Georgia.....	1	2,500	120	30,000	3,000	14	20 00	100	7,500
Florida.....
Alabama.....
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....
Texas.....
Arkansas.....
Tennessee.....	42	755,050	11,696	325	9,151	62,038	385,616	731	15 20	10,348	38,800	670,618
Kentucky.....	4	176,000	2,000	1,600	280,000	180,800	183	32 06	3,070	299,700
Ohio.....	11	620,800	13,675	2,900	28,755	466,900	604,493	708	33 61	14,416	1,076,192
Michigan.....
Indiana.....	3	17,000	50	3,150	85,000	4,425	22	27 45	175	11,760
Illinois.....
Missouri.....	2	42,100	1,204	9,834	24,509	101	30 00	963	68,700
Iowa.....
Wisconsin.....
California.....
Dist. of Colum.....
Total.....	432	\$14,495,220	251,491	33,344	76,787	538,063	14,510,828	\$9,698,109	13,178	79	278,044	\$458,300	\$16,747,074

G.—MALT AND SPIRITUOUS LIQUORS.

STATE.	Capital in-vested.	Quantities and kinds of Grain, &c., consumed.						Hands employed.	Quantities of Liquors produced.		
		Bushels of Barley.	Bushels of Corn.	Bushels of Rye.	Bushels of Oats.	Bushels of Apples.	Hogsheads of Molasses.		Barrels of Ale, &c.	Gallons of high Wines.	Gallons of Rum.
Maine.....	\$17,000	2,000	5	220,000
Vermont.....	7,000	2,500	2	800
Massachusetts.....	457,500	80,000	19,400	26,600	35,130	131	25,800	120,000	3,786,000
Rhode Island.....	17,000	12,500	9	3,900
Connecticut.....	15,500	20,000	20,000	10	20	130,000	1,200
New York.....	2,585,900	2,062,250	1,647,966	909,067	6,707	60,940	24,500	1,380	644,700	9,231,700	2,488,800
New Jersey.....	409,655	103,700	254,000	58,400	409,700	42	34,750	1,250,530
Pennsylvania.....	1,719,960	550,105	1,483,555	517,180	24,700	51,200	10	263	189,581	6,548,810	1,500
Maryland.....	247,100	76,900	166,100	54,300	460	25	26,380	787,400
Virginia.....	100,915	20,000	250,700	62,680	450	14	5,500	879,440
North Carolina.....	21,930	64,650	4,700	133	153,030
South Carolina.....	3,475	18,100	75	43,900
Georgia.....	7,150	20,150	2,500	1,500	33	60,450
Alabama.....	500	25	15	3,000
Louisiana.....	8,500	10,000	2	3,000
Kentucky.....	168,895	65,650	551,350	30,530	5,000	8	19,500	1,491,745
Tennessee.....	66,125	3,000	258,400	5,480	159	657,000
Missouri.....	998,900	124,440	309,300	24,900	179	44,850	939,400
Ohio.....	1,962,974	330,950	3,588,140	281,750	19,500	1,033	96,943	11,865,150
Indiana.....	334,950	118,150	1,417,900	48,700	1,000	178	11,005	4,639,900
Illinois.....	303,400	98,000	703,500	48,700	2,200	287	27,925	2,315,000
Michigan.....	139,425	32,030	212,300	19,150	98	10,320	690,900
Iowa.....	19,500	51,150	7,200	19	160,600
Wisconsin.....	98,700	91,020	29,900	9,200	98	31,320	127,000
New Mexico.....	7,300	2,000	12,900	21	42,000
Utah.....	3,000	1,000	3	300
Dist. of Colum.....	12,000	5,000	5	1,350
Total.....	\$8,334,254	3,787,195	11,067,761	2,143,927	56,517	526,540	61,675	5,487	1,177,924	42,133,955	6,500,500

GROWTH OF THE NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

THE effects of a very favorable soil and climate, combined with a free government, and laws which secure to every one the fruits of his own labors, are strikingly illustrated in the unexampled growth and prosperity of these countries. And the future promises to excel the past. The ancient prophecy that a nation should be born in a day, was never more remarkably verified than in the case of the six states west and north-west of Pennsylvania. Men who can hardly be called old, remember the time when these territories were peopled almost exclusively by a few roving savages; and now we see them occupied by large and flourishing communities of civilized men, to whom the voice of war and oppression are unknown, every man sitting in his own domicile "without any to make him afraid."

In 1790, the whole of that region contained only a few small settlements of whites. Those at Marietta and Cincinnati in Ohio, and the old French settlements of Detroit, Vincennes, Kaskaskia, and Cahokia included every one which was large enough to possess a village. Detroit was the largest; and it was then only a little village.

The following figures will show the future increase of the population of the six States just mentioned, exclusive of Iowa:

	Population.	Growth.
In 1790,	3,000	
1800,	50,230	1,600 per cent.
1810,	272,324	450 "
1820,	792,719	191 "
1830,	1,470,028	86 "
1840,	2,924,728	99 "
1850,	4,526,930	55 "

A better view of the actual growth may be had by taking the additions at decennial periods, thus:

From 1790 to 1800,	47,230
1800 to 1810,	222,094
1810 to 1820,	677,004
1820 to 1830,	1,454,700
1830 to 1840,	1,602,202

We thus see that the actual additions are yet increasing, although, by an arithmetical law, the *ratio* is decreasing, as the basis on which the ratio is taken enlarges.

The relations of the Northwestern States to the Union, in power and representation, may be seen by the following tables:

Proportion of the Northwest to the Union.

In 1790	1 to 1,300	In 1830	1 to	8
1800	1 to 100	1840	1 to	5
1810	1 to 26	1850	1 to	4
1820	1 to 12			

Proportion of Congressional Representation.

By census of 1790	No representation.
Do. 1800	None to 102
Do. 1810	6 to 121
Do. 1820	17 to 213
Do. 1830	29 to 227
Do. 1840	41 to 223
Do. 1850	48 to 235

The growth of the northwest, in relation to the Union, is thus continually increasing.

EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1850.

TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS.				
Whither exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the dom. of each power.
Russia	\$233,124	\$433,311	\$666,435	\$666,435
Prussia		70,645	70,645	70,645
Sweden & Norway	126,757	541,823	668,580	766,756
Swedish W. Indies	93,463	4,713	98,176	
Denmark	16,070	149,804	165,874	1,033,014
Danish W. Indies .	820,913	46,227	867,140	
Hanse Towns . . .	719,519	3,601,261	4,320,780	4,320,780
Holland	1,164,686	1,023,415	2,188,101	2,829,983
Dutch E. Indies . .	172,355	8,178	180,533	
Dutch W. Indies . .	344,211	20,124	364,335	
Dutch Guiana . . .	97,014		97,014	2,168,357
Belgium	1,925,989	242,368	2,163,357	
England	38,475,535	26,211,424	64,686,959	81,687,051
Scotland	1,432,146	1,589,594	3,021,740	
Ireland	386,680	638,351	1,025,031	
Gibraltar	167,776	18,531	186,307	
Malta	75,329		75,329	
British E. Indies . .	502,613		502,613	
Cape of G. Hope . .	143,219		143,219	
Honduras	171,729	255	171,984	
British Guiana . . .	406,531	96,245	502,776	
British W. Indies . .	2,611,440	1,001,362	3,612,802	
Canada	2,944,608	1,696,843	4,641,451	
British American Colonies	386,792	2,730,048	3,116,840	

Whither exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the domin. of ea. power.
France on the At- lantic	15,769,622	1,165,169	16,934,791	18,278,151
France on the Medi- terranean	771,374	244,112	1,015,486	
French W. Indies . .	211,007	58,370	269,377	
Miquelon and French Fisheries . . .	1,563	954	2,517	
French Guiana . . .	43,405	. . .	43,405	
Bourbon	12,575	12,575	9,245,680
Spain on the Atlantic	353,727	251,932	605,659	
Spain on the Medi- terranean	131,645	3,124,717	3,256,362	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	11,634	8,890	20,524	
Manilla and Philip- pine Islands	16,817	. . .	16,817	
Cuba	4,441,290	88,966	4,530,256	371,316
Other Spanish W. Indies	747,755	68,307	816,062	
Portugal	112,970	60,008	172,978	
Madeira	117,746	19,128	136,874	
Fayal and other Azores	11,318	3,103	14,421	
Cape de Verd Isl- ands	38,186	8,857	47,043	1,567,166
Italy generally . . .	1,074,804	492,362	1,567,166	
Sicily	25,047	25,530	50,577	
Sardinia	403	170,361	170,764	
Tuscany	41,477	4,187	45,664	
Trieste and other Austrian Ports on the Adriatic	695,071	484,822	1,179,893	1,179,893
Turkey, Levant, &c.	204,397	. . .	204,397	204,397
Hayti	1,108,613	102,394	1,211,007	1,211,007
Mexico	1,423,512	75,279	1,498,791	1,497,791
Central Republic of America	55,544	1,681	57,225	57,225
New Grenada	887,996	82,623	970,619	970,619
Venezuela	596,639	81,823	678,462	678,462
Brazil	2,634,790	88,977	2,723,767	2,723,767
Cisplatine Republic .	39,746	20,278	60,024	60,024
Argentine Republic .	474,307	244,024	718,331	718,331
Chili	1,485,951	24,923	1,297,133	1,297,133
Peru	147,540	111,399	258,939	358,939
Equador	24,214	. . .	24,414	24,414
China	1,485,961	. . .	1,485,961	1,485,961
West Indies generally	63,993	3,941	67,934	67,934

Whither Exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the domin. of ea. power.
S. America generally	22,256	. . .	22,256	22,256
Asia generally . .	315,463	. . .	315,463	315,463
Africa generally . .	654,976	75,956	730,932	730,932
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	169,025	. . .	169,025	169,025
Total	89,616,742	47,330,170	136,946,912	136,946,912

TOWNSEND HAINES, Register.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
Register's Office, December 4, 1850.

EXPORTS OF COTTON SINCE 1821.

	Total pounds.	Value.	Average price pr. lb.
1821	124,893,405	\$20,157,484	16.2 cents.
1822	144,675,095	24,035,058	16.6 "
1823	173,723,270	20,445,520	11.8 "
1824	142,369,663	21,947,401	15.4 "
1825	176,449,907	36,846,649	20.9 "
1826	204,535,415	25,025,214	12.2 "
1827	294,310,115	29,359,545	10 "
1828	210,590,463	22,487,229	10.7 "
1829	264,837,186	26,575,311	10 "
1830	298,459,102	29,674,883	9.9 "
1831	276,979,784	25,289,492	9.1 "
1832	322,215,122	31,724,682	9.8 "
1833	324,698,604	36,191,105	11.1 "
1834	384,717,907	49,448,402	12.8 "
1835	387,358,992	64,961,302	16.8 "
1836	423,631,307	71,284,925	16.8 "
1837	444,211,537	63,240,102	14.2 "
1838	595,952,267	61,556,811	10.3 "
1839	413,624,212	61,238,982	14.8 "
1840	743,941,061	63,870,307	8.5 "
1841	530,204,100	54,330,341	10.2 "
1842	584,717,017	47,593,464	8.1 "
1843	792,297,106	49,119,806	6.2 "
1844	663,633,455	54,063,501	8.1 "
1845	872,905,996	51,739,643	5.92 "
1846	547,558,055	42,767,341	7.81 "
1847	527,219,958	53,415,848	10.34 "
1848	814,274,431	61,998,294	7.613 "
1849	1,036,602,269	66,396,967	6.4 "
1850	635,381,604	71,984,616	11.3 "

WHALE FISHERY FOR 1850.

THIS year was one of great prosperity in the trade. The number of ships returning with full cargoes was large, while prices rose to an unprecedented height. Nevertheless the importations of oil in 1850 will be found to fall short of that of 1849 about 7000 bbls. of sperm, and 48,000 bbls. of whale; and the number of arrivals as compared with the same year, is less by six sperm and nineteen right whalers; yet the stock on hand of each description is about the same as on the 1st Jan. 1850. This discrepancy as regards whale oil, is undoubtedly owing to a diminished consumption, arising from the very high figure at which oil has been held; which has forced many substitutes into the market, and seriously impaired exportations. Under these circumstances it is clear that a small fall in prices would argue anything but a depression in the market.

The number of vessels employed in the fishery was about the same as that of 1849. Of the fleet, 145 cruised in the Russian and Arctic seas with great success. Indeed the average quantity of oil taken was larger than in any previous year.

Importations of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone into the United States in 1850.

Ports.	Ships and barques.	Brigs and Schr.s.	Bbls. Spm. Oil.	Bbls. Whale Oil.	Lbs. Whalebone.
New Bedford . .	64	0	39,298	91,627	1,081,500
Fairhaven . . .	10	0	8,812	10,559	477,900
Dartmouth . . .		1	266	7	
Westport . . .	5	2	3,607	324	
Mattapoisset . .	3	1	2,689	81	
Sippican . . .	1		42	1,453	9,300
Wareham . . .	1		150	2,719	38,100
<hr/>					
Dist. N. Bedford	84	4	54,965	106,770	1,606,800
Holmes Hole . .	3		1,208	4,960	56,800
Edgartown . . .	1		2,164	184	1,700
Nantucket . . .	12	1	17,989	1,328	133,000
Yarmouth . . .		1	68	13	
Provincetown . .	1	22	3,205	501	.
Boston . . .	7	1	3,845	786	3,700
Beverly . . .		2	368		
Truro . . .		4	140		
Warren . . .	1		1,035		
Providence . . .	2		112	3,368	23,600
Stonington . . .	7		900	15,226	179,600
Mystic . . .	2		251	1,588	3,000

Ports.	Ships and barques.	Brigs and Schrs.	Bbls. Spm. Oil.	Bbls. Whale Oil.	Lbs. Whalebone.
New London . .	17		2,349	36,545	203,000
Sagharbor . .	11	1	718	26,438	193,100
Greenport . .	1		505	828	4,900
Cold Spring . .	1		776	763	
New York . .	1	3	2,054	1,310	460,000
Orleans . .		1	240		
Total in '50 . .	151	37	92,892	200,608	2,869,200

		Bbls. whale.	Bbls. sperm.	Lbs. bone.
Imports for 1849, . .		100,944	248,492	2,281,100
“ 1848, . .		107,976	280,656	2,003,000
“ 1847, . .		120,753	313,150	3,341,680
“ 1846, . .		95,217	207,493	2,276,939
“ 1845, . .		157,917	272,730	3,167,142
“ 1844, . .		139,594	262,047	2,532,445
“ 1843, . .		166,985	206,727	2,000,000
“ 1842, . .		165,637	161,041	1,600,000
“ 1841, . .		159,304	207,348	2,000,000
Average for 10 years, . .		130,721	236,029	2,407,150

Exports of Whale Oil from New Bedford in 1850.

To Hamburg,	49,617 gallons.
Cowes and a market,	59,874 “

Exports of Sperm and Whale Oil from Boston in 1850.

Sperm oil to England,	70,738 gallons.
Whale oil “	26,974 “
Sperm oil to Scotland,	1,600 “
Whalebone to Holland,	15,000 lbs.
“ England,	17,475 “

Statement of the prices of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone on the first and fifteenth of each month of the year 1850, together with the average price per year for ten years past.

	Sperm oil.		Whale oil,		Whalebone.	
	1st.	15th.	1st.	15th.	1st.	15th.
January	116½	119	46	47	35½	32
February	120	118½	44½	45¼	32	32
March	120	119	43½	45	31	30
April	118½	117½	43½	44	31⅜	31
May	115¾	116¼	44	49¼	31	33½
June	120	120	52½	52¾	36¾	35½
July	119	118½	52¾	51½	36	35½
August	120	120	49½	52⅝	34	35
September	120	121	51¾	52½	34½	35
October	124	125	52½	52½	35½	37¼
November	126	127	51	51½	38¾	38¼
December	127	128	53	50	38½	36½

Average for '50	120 $\frac{7}{10}$	49 $\frac{1}{10}$	34 $\frac{4}{10}$
" '49	108 $\frac{2}{10}$ c.	39 $\frac{2}{10}$ c.	31 $\frac{8}{10}$ c.
" '48	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	30 $\frac{7}{8}$
" '47	87 $\frac{7}{8}$	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34
" '46	88	32 $\frac{7}{8}$	33 $\frac{5}{8}$

AVERAGE VOYAGES.—AVERAGE CARGOES.

Arrivals in 1846.

		Sperm. Av. cargo.	Whale.	Sperm. Total.	Whale.
42 sperm whalers	41m. 6d.	1350	280	57400	11760
94 2 season rt. "	30m. 2d.	225	2034	21150	191196
1 1 season rt. "	12m. 2d.		2005		2005
48 Atlantic sp. "	14m. 7d.	259	14	12432	672
Sent home from outward bound, wrecked, &c.				4235	1860
				<hr/> 95217	<hr/> 207493

Arrivals in 1847.

52 sperm whalers	45m. 12d.	1505	219	78287	11416
150 right "	31m. 7d.	195	1978	29309	296711
1 Greenland "	7m. 0d.		940		940
34 Atlantic sp. "	15m. 9d.	228 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	7770	1437
Sent home from outward bound, wrecked, &c.				5387	2646
				<hr/> 120753	<hr/> 313150

Arrivals in 1848.

52 sperm whalers	41m. 19d.	1292	192	67178	9984
122 right "	33m. 2d.	222	2187	27081	266828
1 Greenland "	7m. 19d.		727		727
31 Atlantic sp. "	16m. 21d.	303	18	9395	552
Sent home from outward bound, wrecked, &c.				4322	2565
				<hr/> 107976	<hr/> 280656

Arrivals in 1849.

54 sperm whalers	41m. 21d.	1284	168	69524	9066
102 right "	33m. 9d.	209	2271	21355	231631
1 Greenland "	7m. 14d.		728		728
28 Atlantic sp. "	6m. 16d.	216	25	6052	697
Sent home from outward bound, wrecked, &c.				4013	6090
				<hr/> 100944	<hr/> 248202

Arrivals in 1850.

48 sperm whalers	41m. 22d.	1189	115	57099	5539
83 right "	33m. 20d.	189 $\frac{1}{2}$	2217	15727	183992
1 Greenland "	7m. 16d.		485		485
33 Atlantic sp. "	9m. 14d.	235	14	8917	521
Sent home from outward bound, wrecked, &c.				11149	10071
				<hr/> 62892	<hr/> 200608

RAILROADS IN UNITED STATES.

At the beginning of the year the number of Railroads in operation in the United States, was 263, measuring 11,565 miles in length, and constructed at an estimated cost of over \$350,000,000. The number of Railroads in course of construction was 74, measuring 11,228 miles. Total number of Railroads 337, and total number of miles in operation, and in course of construction, 22,893.

It will be seen by a subsequent table that there are in Great Britain 6,624 miles of railroad in operation, and 5,382 miles in the course of construction. Therefore when all the railroads authorized and constructing in the United States and Great Britain shall be completed, the number of miles in the two countries will equal 34,799 miles, a greater length than would completely surround the globe.

PUBLIC LANDS OF THE UNITED STATES.

(FROM THE OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE.)

THE following table shows the area of each State, the number of acres surveyed, and the number remaining unsurveyed—

	Area of the States.	
	Square miles.	Acres.
Ohio	39,964	25,576,960
Indiana	33,809	21,637,760
Illinois	55,405	35,459,200
Missouri	67,380	43,123,200
Alabama	50,043	32,027,490
Mississippi	37,337	23,895,628
Louisiana	46,431	29,715,840
Michigan	56,243	35,995,520
Arkansas	52,198	33,406,720
Wisconsin	53,924	34,511,360
Iowa	50,914	32,584,960
Florida	59,268	37,931,520
Minnesota Territory	83,000	53,120,000
Northwest Territory	587,564	376,040,960
Nebraska	136,700	87,488,000
Indiana	187,171	119,789,440
New Mexico	210,744	134,876,160
Utah	187,923	120,270,720
California	188,981	120,947,840
Oregon	341,463	218,536,320
	2,526,462	1,616,935,598

	Surveyed to Sept. 30, 1850.	Unsurveyed to Sept. 30, 1850.
Ohio	16,770,984	None.
Indiana	21,488,658	None.
Illinois	35,455,469	3,731
Missouri	42,613,273	509,927
Alabama	31,993,813	33,677
Mississippi	23,895,628	None.
Louisiana	19,152,523	10,563,317
Michigan	30,629,076	5,366,444
Arkansas	33,201,425	205,295
Wisconsin	16,169,498	18,341,862
Iowa	19,196,106	13,388,854
Florida	21,907,314	16,024,206
Minnesota Territory	237,227	52,882,773
Northwest Territory		376,049,960
Nebraska		87,488,000
Indiana		119,789,440
New Mexico		134,876,160
Utah		120,270,720
California		120,947,840
Oregon		218,536,320
	<u>312,710,994</u>	<u>1,295,260,526</u>

LUMBER TRADE WITH CANADA.

THE lumber trade of Canada with the United States is rapidly extending. Messrs. Forsyth & Bell state, in their circular, that this has been to such an amount as to render it precarious for England to depend upon Canada for the future. The following table shows the extent of this trade from one port alone. Lake Champlain received from the port of St. Johns, as follows:

	Sawed Lumber, broad meas.	Square Timber.
In 1847	7,000,000 feet.	310,000 cubic feet.
1848	9,000,000 "	750,000 "
1849	12,000,000 "	1,150,000 "
1850	31,785,941 "	1,660,000 "

SHIPBUILDING IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE following table sets forth the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each state and territory of the United States, for the year ending June 30, 1850. It will be seen that MAINE heads the list,—326 vessels having been built there during the past year:—

States.	Ships.	CLASS OF VESSELS.					Total No.	Total tonnage.
		Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steam-ers.			
Maine	127	75	115	3	6		326	91,211 73
New Hampshire	8		2				10	6,914 32
Vermont					1		1	77 41
Massachusetts	51	19	46	3	2		121	35,836 14
Rhode Island	5		5	3	1		14	3,587 15
Connecticut	3	7	27	9	1		47	4,819 79
New York	26	4	50	112	32		224	58,342 73
New Jersey	1	1	35	17	3		57	6,201 68
Pennsylvania	7	1	39	107	31		185	21,409 93
Delaware			12	3	1		16	1,848 82
Maryland	16	5	125		4		150	15,964 80
Dist. of Columbia				8			8	288 17
Virginia	1	1	27		5		34	3,584 04
North Carolina	1	2	23	2	5		33	2,651 59
South Carolina								
Georgia			2		3		5	683 82
Florida			2				2	79 75
Alabama			3				3	113 66
Mississippi								
Louisiana	1		16	3	4		24	1,592 38
Tennessee								
Kentucky					34		34	6,460 69
Missouri					5		5	1,353 82
Illinois		2	7	3	1		13	1,691 21
Ohio			4	11	16		31	5,214 62
Michigan			5	6	3		14	2,061 63
Texas					1		1	105 54
Oregon			2				2	122 42
Total	247	117	547	290	159		1,360	272,218 54

MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH.

THERE are already in the United States and Canada, more than 12,000 miles of wire, involving a capital of more than \$3,000,000. To work these lines, costs annually 720 tons of zinc worth \$57,600, more than a million pounds of nitric acid worth \$117,800, and \$27,000 worth of mercury, besides a considerable value in sulphuric acid, &c.

STATISTICS RELATIVE TO NEW YORK.

Ship Building at New York.

THE following tables will show the progress of ship-building in the metropolis of the New World since 1847 :

	Launched.	On stocks.	Ag. tonnage.
Jan. 1st, 1847	39,018	29,870	68,888
" 1848	36,649	15,719	52,359
" 1849	38,985	23,890	61,975
" 1850	62,225	27,516	89,741

From this it will be seen that ship-building has thrived during the year just closed, in an unprecedented degree.

The progress of American ship-building, particularly in the construction of steam vessels, since the California gold discoveries, has been great, and a new impetus has been imparted to another department of marine architecture by the repeal of the British navigation laws.

TOTAL STEAMSHIPS BUILT IN NEW YORK.

By Jacob Bell.

Lion	667
Eagle	667
Pacific	3,000
Baltic	3,000
Marion	1,000

By Wm. H. Brown.

Kamschatka	2,000
Falcon	1,100
Northerner	1,200
Southerner	1,000
Crescent City	1,500
Empire City	1,823
Atlantic	3,000
Arctic	3,000
Pacific	1,100

By J. Simonson.

Ohio	2,700
Isthmus	600
Prometheus	1,400

By Thomas Collyer.

Caribbean	1,700
---------------------	-------

By Wm. Collyer.

Mexico	1,200
------------------	-------

By Wm. H. Webb.

California	1,000
Panama	1,000
Cherokee	1,100
Tennessee	1,100
United States	2,000
Florida	1,150
Alabama	1,120
Union	1,100

By Westervelt & Mackay.

Washington	1,600
Hermann	1,700
Franklin	2,200
Humboldt	2,200
Louisiana	800
Columbia	800
Winfield Scott	1,400
Gold Hunter	650

By Perrine, P. & Stack.

Brother Jonathan	1,400
----------------------------	-------

By Smith & Dimon.

Oregon	1,000
Georgia	2,800

Total, thirty-eight steamships, whose aggregate tonnage, as above estimated, is 57,807 tons, and their value not far from \$10,500,000.

As has already been seen, *sixteen* of these have been launched during the year 1850. Three, only, were launched during the year previous. Besides those included in the above table, there have been built during the year 1850, three large steam propellers, and some half dozen small class steamers, both of wood and iron, have been shipped to California as freight.

The first regular steamships built in that city were the *Lion* and the *Eagle*, above mentioned—launched in the year 1840, by Jacob Bell, for the Spanish government. They are now attached to the Spanish navy, and are known as the *Congress* and *Regent*. The next was the *Kamschatka*, built by Wm. H. Brown, in 1841, and sold to the Russian government; but the *Washington*, of the New York and Bremen line, launched by Westervelt & Mackay, in January of the year 1847, was the first vessel owned in the United States in connection with a regular line of ocean steamers. The steamships *United States* and *Hermann* followed in 1848. The former was soon after sold to the Germanic Confederation. These three vessels were the pioneers of American adventure in this important branch of national industry.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE IMPORTS INTO NEW YORK BY OCEAN STEAMERS.

Value and amount of duties paid on goods brought by the Steamers "Washington" and "Hermann," of the Ocean Steam Navigation Co., from the first trip in July, 1847, to June 2d, 1851, inclusive:

Date.	Value of Imports.	Duties on Imports.
1847,	\$584,002	\$142,589 75
1848,	2,295,822	575,989 60
1849,	5,474,560	1,400,717 15
1850,	4,034,474	1,025,668 40
1851,	1,285,445	331,361 90

Value and amount of duties paid on goods brought by the Steamers "Franklin" and "Humboldt," of the Steam Navigation Co., from the first trip in November, 1850, to June 17th, 1851, inclusive:

Date.	Value of Imports.	Duties on Imports.
1850,	\$311,202	\$70,982 35
1851,	2,677,151	606,553 15

Value and amount of duties paid on goods brought by the Collins' Steamers from the first trip in July, 1850, to May 26, 1851, inclusive. (Pacific, Atlantic, Arctic, Baltic.)

Date.	Value of Imports.	Duties on Imports.
1850,	\$1,399,726	\$344,073 05
1851,	3,305,570	842,351 05

Aggregate value of Imports and Duties paid on the same, by the above American Steamship Trans-Atlantic Lines, within the dates specified.

Lines.	Value of Imports.	Duties on Imports.
Ocean Steam Navigation Co.	\$13,674,303	\$3,476,326 80
Steam Navigation Co.	2,988,353	677,535 50
U. S. Mail Steamship Co.	4,705,296	1,186,424 10
	<u>\$21,367,952</u>	<u>\$5,340,286 40</u>

Aggregate amount of duties paid on goods imported by the Cunard steamers into New York, from the first trip in January, 1848, to the 1st June, 1851,—a period of three years and five months, including 71 entrances, \$5,783,699 28

Aggregate amount of duties paid on goods imported by the American trans-Atlantic steamers into New York, from the first trip in July, 1847, to the 17th of June, 1851,—a period of four years, including 56 entrances, \$5,340,286 40

Difference in receipts in favor of the Cunarders, \$443,412 88

Number of entrances at this port of the Cunard steamers in the above stated time, 71

Number of entrances at this port of American trans-Atlantic steamers in same time, 56

Difference in our favor, as respects estimate of freight and duties payable thereon, 15

The number of entrances during the past four years of our own steamers stands thus :

Vessels of Ocean Steam Navigation Co.,	33
“ Steam Navigation Co.,	5
“ U. S. M. Steamship Co.,	18
Total,	<u>56</u>

THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER ON THE CANALS IN 1849 AND 1850.

STATEMENT FOR 1849.

The Forest.

	Quantity.	Value.
Fur and peltry, lbs.	554,531	692,864
Boards and scantling, feet,	297,431,140	4,459,157
Shingles, m.	51,258	153,774
Timber, cubic feet,	1,497,627	119,598
Staves, lbs.	154,159,359	693,701
Wood, cord,	11,977	56,892
Ashes, bbls.	31,289	1,016,800

Agriculture.

	Quantity.	Value.
Pork bbls.	73,985	758,421
Beef, "	105,492	1,244,360
Bacon, lbs.	8,477,754	514,666
Cheese, "	42,097,818	2,736,211
Butter, "	20,880,409	2,923,832
Lard, "	9,083,062	635,814
Wool, "	12,731,402	4,072,358
Hides, "	596,364	59,637
Flour, bbls.	3,263,087	16,315,435
Wheat, bush.	2,734,389	2,993,160
Rye, "	322,942	187,545
Corn, "	5,121,270	2,970,482
Barley, "	1,400,194	868,115
Other grain bush.	2,407,895	868,084
Bran and shipstuffs, bush.	2,022,031	242,755
Peas and beans, "	160,234	160,234
Potatoes, "	242,211	117,918
Dried fruit, lbs.	780,369	78,007
Cotton, "	316,094	29,240
Tobacco, "	1,896,056	237,007
Clover and grass seed, lbs.	2,479,098	148,746
Flax seed, "	1,381,684	30,536
Hops, "	1,877,805	262,893

Manufactures.

Domestic spirits, galls.	2,107,595	526,938
Leather, lbs.	5,532,610	885,080
Furniture, "	1,116,300	111,631
Bar and pig lead, lbs.	11,167	503
Pig iron, "	9,636,166	96,362
Bloom and bar iron, lbs.	27,906,016	558,120
Iron ware, "	1,737,690	52,131
Domestic woollens, "	1,055,513	895,991
Domestic cottons, "	2,498,425	698,816
Salt, bush.	283,333	73,666
Merchandise, lbs.	11,743,671	508,048

Other articles.

Stone, lime and clay, lbs.	51,323,818	74,060
Gypsum, "	2,551,600	5,742
Mineral coal, "	25,169,939	56,633
Sundries, "	110,244,928	2,183,548

STATEMENT FOR 1850.

The Forest.

	Quantity.	Value.
Fur and peltry, lbs.	655,076	818,845
Boards and scantling, feet,	425,095,436	6,305,723
Shingles, m.	257,905	202,668
Timber, cubic feet,	3,039,588	440,400
Staves, lbs.	202,224,480	908,613
Wood, cord,	12,411	60,744
Ashes, bbls.	52,237	1,518,035

Agriculture.

Pork, bbls.	46,617	512,798
Beef, "	97,259	866,789
Bacon, lbs.	9,681,921	580,922
Cheese, "	32,585,363	1,955,121
Butter, "	17,098,685	2,391,862
Lard, "	8,278,228	620,868
Lard oil, galls.	67,470	42,506
Wool, lbs.	11,987,356	4,372,578
Hides, "	458,165	54,891
Tallow, "	577,628	40,524
Flour, bbls.	3,256,085	16,280,425
Wheat, bush.	3,670,754	3,937,763
Rye, "	472,305	315,928
Corn, "	3,228,056	2,000,890
Corn meal, bbls.	11,983	35,949
Barley, bush.	1,744,867	1,417,927
Oats, "	2,468,837	1,014,877
Bran and shipstuffs, lbs.	35,103,453	927,853
Peas and beans, bush.	79,485	89,382
Potatoes, "	230,699	123,269
Dried fruit, lbs.	1,467,355	132,019
Cotton, "	1,112,333	153,239
Unmanufactured tobacco, lbs.	795,025	159,005
Hemp, "	66,120	4,960
Clover and grass seed, "	1,417,233	92,106
Flax seed, "	1,144,930	27,745
Hops, "	858,356	159,647

Manufactures.

Domestic spirits, galls.	1,517,095	394,301
Beer, bbls.	95	475
Linseed oil, galls.	908	591
Oil meal and cake, lbs.	6,391,181	79,859
Starch, "	2,743,881	144,054
Leather, "	7,175,511	1,148,068
Furniture, "	1,101,802	110,180

	Quantity.	Value.
Agricultural implements, lbs.	15,530	777
Bar and pig lead, "	86,000	4,300
Pig iron, "	5,276,900	52,769
Castings, "	1,578,984	47,428
Machines and parts thereof, lbs.	278,950	27,895
Bloom and bar iron, "	22,440,734	448,815
Iron ware, "		
Domestic woollens, "	1,018,595	891,204
Domestic cottons, "	1,867,037	558,532
Domestic salt, "	13,153,218	52,612
Foreign salt, "	1,327,650	5,311
Merchandise, "	374,406	54,620
Sugar, "	462,822	28,123
Molasses, "	434,694	8,763
Coffee, "	48,977	4,920
Nails and spikes, "	11,385,889	407,897
Iron, "	1,129,283	33,879
Steel, "	74,292	8,555
Horse shoes, "	5,200	273
Crockery and glass ware, "	186,996	16,497
Oysters and clams, "	5,300	106

Other articles.

Live cattle, hogs and sheep, lbs.	1,578,450	47,349
Stone, lime and clay, "	87,916,036	118,482
Gypsum, "	6,949,800	14,949
Eggs, "	3,280,092	197,544
Mineral coal, "	32,144,440	90,951
Fish, "	457,778	14,319
Copper ore, "	104,982	15,747
Flint enamelled ware, "	2,400	240
Sundries,	94,110,504	1,823,913

Aggregates—1849.

Forest,	665,547 tons.	\$7,192,796
Agriculture,	769,000 "	38,455,456
Manufactures,	44,288 "	3,899,238
Merchandise,	5,873 "	508,048
Other articles,	94,638 "	2,319,983
Total,	1,579,946 "	\$52,375,521

Aggregates—1850.

Forest,	947,818 tons.	\$10,315,118
Agriculture,	926,045 "	38,311,543
Manufactures,	39,828 "	3,967,171
Merchandise,	7,105 "	563,615
Other articles,	113,222 "	2,323,494
Total,	2,034,018 "	\$55,480,941

Statement of the tonnage and value of all the property which went from the Hudson river on all the canals in 1849 and 1850 :

	1849.	1850.
Tonnage,	315,550	347,813
Value,	\$75,266,073	\$80,626,635

Aggregate movement from and to the Hudson river during the years 1849 and 1850, and the aggregate value of the property transported :

	1849.	1850.
Tonnage,	1,895,496	2,381,831
Value,	\$127,641,594	\$136,107,578

IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE FIRST FIVE MONTHS OF EACH YEAR, FROM 1849 to 1851.

(From the N. Y. Journal of Commerce.)

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Manufactures of wool . . .	\$2,781,159	\$5,744,476	\$5,513,126
" cotton . . .	4,598,814	5,532,648	5,355,438
" silk . . .	5,884,219	7,025,638	10,296,506
" flax . . .	1,929,665	4,042,595	3,291,168
Miscellaneous	2,270,590	933,610	1,742,901
Total	17,464,447	23,278,967	26,199,139

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Manufactures of wool . . .	567,063	346,837	474,386
" cotton . . .	773,655	608,095	822,057
" silk . . .	746,141	514,153	520,655
" flax . . .	256,214	202,023	332,322
Miscellaneous	238,747	75,215	220,667
Total	2,581,820	1,746,323	2,370,087
Add entered for consump- tion	17,464,447	23,278,967	26,199,139
Total thrown upon the market	20,046,267	25,025,290	28,569,226

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Manufactures of wool . . .	474,787	587,385	589,058
" cotton . . .	556,778	825,022	763,854
" silk . . .	835,851	496,309	861,037
" flax . . .	168,478	321,539	322,561
Miscellaneous	145,601	50,529	190,180
Total	2,181,445	2,280,785	2,726,590

The increase for the five months has been almost exclusively in silk goods; woollens show a positive decrease of \$103,801, and cottons exhibit but the trifling difference of \$36,752. The miscellaneous goods include straw plait, artificial flowers, and all dry goods not embraced in the other classes specified.

NEWSPAPERS PUBLISHED IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

(From the collection made by the Secretary of State, Hon. C. Morgan, in 1851.)

Number of newspapers published in 1833	254
“ “ “ in 1851	458

THE number of daily papers published is as follows, compared with 1833, viz.:

	No. in 1833.	No. in 1851.		No. in 1833.	No. in 1851.
New York city,	13	18	Utica,	—	3
Albany,	3	6	Syracuse,	—	3
Troy,	2	3	Oswego,	—	2
Rochester,	2	4	Auburn,	—	1
Buffalo,	—	6	Binghamton,	—	1
Brooklyn,	—	5	Lockport,	—	1
Williamsburgh,	—	2	Hudson,	—	1
Total	20	56			
		20			
Increase of daily papers		36			

The number of newspapers printed in the city of New York, in 1832, was 64, and in the State, 258; and the whole number of copies issued was computed, in *William's Register*, for 1832, as follows:

City of New York.	Papers.	Total.	Average.	Copies Issued. Yearly.
Daily	13	18,200	1400	5,623,800
Semi-weekly	12	19,200	1600	1,996,800
Weekly	33	56,000	—	2,912,000
Semi-monthly	3	3,000	—	72,000
Monthly	3	2,000	—	24,000
Total New York city .	64			10,628,600
Out of the city . . .	194		Estimated . . .	5,400,000
Total in the State . .	258		Copies annually .	16,028,600

STATISTICS OF BOSTON.

(From a report of the Valuation Committee of that city.)

NUMBER of Iron Works and Furnaces, 16; Oil Factories, 13; Glass Factories, 4; Superficial feet of wharf, 5,410,088; tons of vessels of five tons burthen and upwards, 300,324; acres of tillage land, 20; tons of hay produced, 248; acres of salt marsh, 426; acres of land owned by the city, 162; horses 1 year old and upwards, 4308; oxen, 13; cows, 296; sheep, 863; swine, 238; number of dwelling-houses, 13,173; shops, 1897; distil houses, 8; breweries, 3; warehouses and stores, 1726; rope-walks, 4. State valuation of the city, \$214,000,000.

No. of Grammar Schools in July last	24
No. of Primary	178
Total	202
No. of Pupils in Grammar Schools in July	9,184
“ “ Primary “ “	11,376
Total number of scholars	20,560
Amount expended for the support of schools,	\$295,000.

Water to East Boston cost \$313,000. Aqueduct is three miles in length, and crosses three great estuaries. Whole cost of the aqueduct to Jan. 1 is \$4,321,794.—Length 96 miles of pipes, not including the service pipes, of which there are 15,143 in number. The number of hydrants is 1005, of which 791 are in the city proper. The distribution pipes laid the past year, including East Boston, is 13 miles. The receipts of the Water Department, from Jan. 4, 1850, to Jan. 4, 1851, were \$105,114. Number of water takers, 13,463, not including those who were cut off, of which there were 161. The whole expenditure the past year was \$342,886 22. The main supply pipe to East Boston is a 20-inch pipe. The reservoirs there hold 5,591,816 wine gallons. The amount of waste water at the Lake is estimated at 15,000,000 wine gallons per day. If all was saved, the Lake would have afforded the past season 20,000,000 gallons daily. The average daily consumption this year is estimated at 6,000,000 gallons.

The number of dwelling-houses supplied with water was 10,407, paying \$60,843 37; 12 boarding-houses, \$269 40; 2020 stores and shops, \$8,304 10; 54 offices, \$253; 11 banks, \$159 55; 65 hotels, \$2,549 23; 56 restaurants, \$366 85; 12 eating-houses, \$116 25; 57 saloons, \$336 33; 15 bowling-saloons, \$81 50; 13 oyster shops, \$52 67; 2 markets, \$372 92; 9 bath-houses, \$406 50; 33 cellars, \$104 75; 320 stables, \$4,306 33; 37 printing-offices, \$372 87; 35 bakeries, \$214; 15 churches, \$98 75; blind asylum,

\$25; schools, \$87; theatre, Melodeon, Tremont temple, museum, halls, &c., \$84 50; 2 club-rooms, gymnasium, 3 billiard-rooms, \$39 17; 1 hospital, medical college, custom-house, post-office, State-house, \$235; 20 fountains, \$199 83; hose-pipes, \$3,620 08; 9 distilleries, \$594 32; 8 breweries, \$146; 3 dye-houses and 2 bleacheries, \$80 50; 8 iron works, turpentine, and chemical works, \$329 67; gas light company, \$300; 9 railroad companies and depôts, \$2,831 18; 2 ferry companies and 8 steamboats, \$1,121 75; 22 factories, \$277 56; 3 foundries, \$23 33; 40 steam-engines, \$3,968 32; 17 shops and engines, \$800 25; 8 factories and engines, \$292 26; 3 foundries and engines, \$446 41; 1 sugar house, \$1,080; shipping contractors, \$1,571 05; street waterers, \$357 17; besides the above, the city buildings, 183 school-houses, 16 engine-houses, 2 city stables, 5 watch-houses, the city buildings at South Boston, Faneuil Hall, City Hall, &c., are supplied, which, estimated at the tariff of 1849 and '50, amount to \$2,405 20.

Sales of Public Lands at private and public sales in 1850, \$312,000. City debt, Jan. 1, 1851, \$1,756,000, exclusive of Water debt; increase in 1850, \$216,600, principally on account of the new jail, which will be more than balanced by the sales of public lands, as above. Total expenditures from the City Treasury, 1850, exclusive of those for water, \$4,940,000.

Foreign arrivals, 2,828. Foreign clearances, 2,671. Coastwise arrivals, 5,978. Coastwise clearances, 3,086. Clearances for California, 166.

Export of cotton goods, 34,307 bales; value, \$1,896,148. Export of boots and shoes, 147,769 cases.

Arrival of Flour per Western Railroad, 367,808 barrels. Arrivals from other sources, 76,148 barrels.

Valuation of Real Estate of the city, \$105,093,400. Personal Estate, \$74,907,100. Total, \$180,000,500. Number of polls, 28,018. Tax for 1850, '51, \$1,266,030—rate per \$100 is 68 cents. Population by the State census, 138,788; by the U. S. census, 136,884; City census not yet published.

Number of insurance companies 32, of which 12 are on the mutual principle; number of banks 30, with a capital of \$21,700,000; number of wharves 118; streets, lanes, courts, &c., 830. Number of deaths in 1850, 3,667. The fire department contains 625 men—have been called out the past year 304 times; amount of loss, \$284,772; insurance, \$119,427; number of street lamps 2,202, of which 959 are for gas. The Jail, House of Correction, House of Reformation, &c., contain 573 persons; the Insane Hospital at South Boston contains 204 patients; House of Industry and Deer Island contain 1,254 paupers.

SUGAR CULTURE IN LOUISIANA.

It is just a hundred years since the first cane was planted in Louisiana. A vessel, laden with French recruits for the colony, touched at Hispaniola. The Jesuits sent their brethren a few bundles of cane, that they might try the experiment. These were planted in what is now the heart of the Second Municipality of New Orleans, and were cultivated by negroes, who came in the fleet which brought the precious seed. It succeeded; but the culture was not prosecuted with any vigor, and it was only in 1759 that M. Dubreuil put up the first mill. In 1769 the culture was abandoned until 1794. That year, Etienne Boré, a native of Illinois, whose indigo crop had failed for several successive years, in despair abandoned that, and attempted the cane. The second year he made a crop worth \$10,000. His success induced his neighbors to imitate his example. Stoddard, in his history of Louisiana, says that in 1803, at the transfer of the territory, the delta contained eighty-one plantations. "Some of these planters are affluent, and possess from thirty to sixty slaves. The most wealthy of this class reside above the city, and before the cession several had made crops valued at from ten to sixteen thousand dollars. Since that period the number of slaves has increased; sugar estates are cultivated on a more extensive scale, and the number of them greatly multiplied, so that the annual crops of some are now worth from \$25,000 to \$30,000. The sugar cane is not raised above the island of Orleans, nor is it believed that the climate will admit of it. No sugar estates are found more than one hundred miles above the city." Such was its condition in 1812. The cane is now cultivated in the southern portions of Natchitoches and Tensas Parishes, three hundred and fifty miles above New Orleans.

In 1830, the Secretary of the Treasury addressed circulars to gentlemen in different parts of the country, seeking information in regard to the various products of industry. Josiah S. Johnston, at that time a Senator from Louisiana, replied very elaborately on the subject of sugar. He said that, at the time of the transfer, the duty on sugar was $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound, which in 1816 was increased to 3 cents. It was more than twenty years from the cession before 40,000 hogsheads were produced. At that time (1830) it was estimated that 35,000 slaves were engaged in the business, 725 plantations, about 100 steam engines—capital valued at \$50,000,000. The slaves consume 35,000 barrels of pork. They produce about 50,000 bushels of corn. The machinery will cost on each plantation \$5000. They work 22,000 horses, valued at

\$1,500,000, which are renewed every seven years, say at an annual cost of \$200,000; more than three fifths of the revenues go to the other States. As to prices, he shows they were, in 1818, from 14 cents to 15 cents. In 1829 they had fallen to $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents. The general average of Havana sugars for six years was $9\frac{3}{4}$ cents; that of Louisiana $8\frac{1}{4}$. The present prices (1830) range from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents. In New Orleans it sells for $5\frac{1}{2}$, but in the Atlantic ports it will bring $6\frac{1}{2}$. Such was its condition in 1830.

In 1840, the number of slaves was 143,890; the product was 119,947 hhds. of 1000 lbs., and 600,000 gallons of molasses. In 1849–50, the crop was 269,769 hhds. In 1850–51, the crop will not exceed \$200,000 hhds., and will bring \$10,000,000. It is impossible to ascertain at present the exact number of slaves and capital employed. The great increase within the last five years has been in that section of the State. It may be safely estimated that the capital now employed is at least \$75,000,000. It seems to be a well-ascertained fact, that a fair yield will reduce the price below 4 cents. Whenever the crop is short, the price is a paying one. But a capitalist will not continue a business which requires one half idle time, and full pay to keep up the price to remunerative rates.

If the sugar planters alone were interested, the capital invested, and persons dependent on the business should lead to its protection; that is, if any business is to be benefitted by any revenue tariff. But, as was shown by Mr. Johnston, the North and West actually derive a large revenue from this business. The Louisiana planters will always be compelled to buy their pork, stock, and machinery. One heavy item of expense escaped Mr. Johnston's notice—that for fuel, either as wood or coal. At that period, perhaps, the wood in the rear of the plantations had not been cut off. Now many planters either buy the rafts which float out of the tributary rivers, or burn coal at a heavy expense.

The cotton crop creates but little demand for other than plantation labor. The sugar culture, which unites farming and manufacturing, requires the products of a great deal of white labor. In this respect it should meet with the peculiar favor of those political economists who think a diversity of labor one of the chief causes of national prosperity and independence.

STATISTICS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

(From the Inquirer.)

IRON MANUFACTURE AND TRADE.

THE present is designated by some modern philosophers as "the Age of Iron," though not in the sense as applied to the olden time, by poets and historians. Certain it is, however, that at no period of the world has Iron been appropriated to so many useful purposes. It is adapted to a thousand objects, and within a few years, iron ships, iron steamers, and iron houses, have multiplied to such an extent, as to excite little or no attention, comparatively speaking, as novelties. But a little while since, and there was not an iron front in the city of Philadelphia. Now, many of our most stately edifices are composed, in a great measure, of this invaluable material, while the experiment, eminently successful thus far, is only in its commencement. A late number of the "Merchants' Magazine," devotes several pages to the subject. The writer says that he has obtained most of his information by personal inspection and observation. We proceed to condense the principal facts.

Of the whole number of counties in Pennsylvania—sixty-two at the commencement of the investigation—forty-five actually contained iron works—and of the remaining seventeen—nine are known to abound in iron and coal. It thus appears that only eight of the counties of the State can be regarded as not suited to the manufacture of iron. These are brief but telling facts. The ten counties that contain the largest number of iron works respectively, are:—

	Works.		Works.
1. Berks,	41	7. Venango,	21
2. Lancaster,	30	8. Columbia,	20
3. Clarion,	30	9. Centre,	20
4. Huntingdon,	28	10. Armstrong,	18
5. Blair,	27		
6. Chester,	25	Total,	260

The following ten counties have the greatest amount of fixed capital invested in the business:—

1. Alleghany,	\$1,837,000	7. Columbia,	\$1,107,000
2. Armstrong,	1,388,000	8. Blair,	922,000
3. Lancaster,	1,273,000	9. Huntingdon,	896,000
4. Chester,	1,248,000	10. Luzerne,	702,000
5. Berks,	1,231,000		
6. Clarion,	1,221,000	Total,	\$11,825,000

The above statements relate to the ten counties at present most largely engaged in the business, but perhaps the greatest seat of

the manufacture is destined to be in the north-western portion of the State, and the head waters of the west branch of the Susquehanna, the Sismemahoning, and the Alleghany rivers, a district embracing some of the counties now containing no iron works.

This is probably the most elevated tract of country in the State, consequently the streams are all small and only navigable in one direction for short distances, by rafts and arks, and that only during a few weeks in the spring of the year; and in part of the district the streams are so small as not to be navigable at any time. The roads are few and very bad. The whole of this tract of country is covered with a dense growth of very heavy timber; and is underlaid by numerous seams of bituminous coal, iron ore, and limestone, being in fact the north-eastern extremity of the great Alleghany coal fields.

The larger portion of the minerals lie above the water level, and are so nearly horizontal in their stratification as to require no steam power to bring them to the surface, nor to pump the water.

The population being very sparse, and there being no means of transportation to a market, the demand for agricultural products is confined to the immediate neighborhood of the farmer; the consumers being chiefly found among that portion of the inhabitants engaged in lumbering.

The inclination of the hillsides is much less abrupt here, than is generally the case in the mountainous parts of the State where the streams are larger and the valleys deeper; and in a large part of the district they are susceptible of cultivation all the way to the top.

At the time of the investigation, the total number of furnaces in operation was 304. The aggregate investment in real estate, amounted to \$11,921,576. Their capacity was to make 550,959 tons per annum. The make in 1847, was 389,350 tons. In 1849, 253,370 tons. In 1850, 198,813 tons. Of the whole number of furnaces in the State (304), 144 were out of blast on the 1st of May, 1850. Still later, on the 1st of November of the same year, 167 furnaces, or 56 per cent. were out of blast. 15 furnaces were sold by the Sheriff in the first four months of 1850, and other sales under execution have since taken place. A comparison of the make of 1850, with that of 1847, shows that a decrease of 190,537 tons, or 49 per cent., in three years. Assuming that Pennsylvania makes one half of all the iron produced in the Union, which is regarded as a fair estimate, the above rate of decrease would give 381,074 tons for the whole Union; or about 1000 tons more than the amount of iron and manufactures of iron and steel imported for that year.

In Eastern Pennsylvania, the manufacture of all descriptions

of iron that come in competition with the English is extinct. All the markets accessible from the sea or the lakes being entirely supplied with the foreign article.

A small amount of Railroad Iron is still made for the interior, but this branch of manufacture shows the following decline:

	Tons rails.
Present annual capacity of the State,	64,400
Make, 1847,	40,966
Make, 1849,	18,973
Decrease in two years, 21,993 tons, or 54 per cent.	

The other Rolling Mills now running are sustained almost entirely by the manufacture of boiler plates and cut nails, which are less seriously affected by foreign competition, though the prices and the demand have been much reduced by it. The English cannot make, at any price, boiler plates equal to our best charcoal plates, but they now furnish all the inferior ones, as well as all the flue and sheet iron now sold.

Cut nails are exclusively of American invention and manufacture, and they have never been imported.

The total number of nail machines in the State is 606. The annual production of each machine averages 1,000 kegs of 100 lbs. each, making 606,000 kegs, or 30,300 tons a year. Of the product of the Forges two thirds are sold in the form of blooms to the Rolling Mills, and are manufactured into boiler plates, horse-shoe rods, and bars for the manufacture of scythes, axes, edge tools and cutlery, and other articles requiring a high polish. The remaining one third is sold in the form of hammered bar iron in competition with Swedish and Russian iron.

The following is a list of all the works in the State in the year 1850 engaged in the conversion of Steel:—

County.	Situation of works.	Owners.	Am't ann. conv. Tons.
<i>Eastern Pennsylvania—</i>			
Philadelphia, . .	Kensington, . .	James Rowland & Co., . .	600
Philadelphia, . .	Kensington, . .	J. Robbins,	500
Philadelphia, . .	Kensington, . .	Earp & Brink,	100
Philadelphia, . .	Kensington, . .	Robert S. Johnston,	400
Philadelphia, . .	Oxford,	W. & H. Rowland,	700
Lancaster,	Martie,	R. & G. D. Coleman,	400
York,	Castlefin,	R. W. & W. Coleman,	100
<i>Western Pennsylvania—</i>			
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	Singer, Hartman & Co., . . .	700
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	Coleman, Hailman & Co., . .	800
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	Jones & Quigg,	1,200
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	Spang & Co.,	200
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	G. & J. H. Schoenberger, . .	200
Alleghany,	Pittsburg,	S. McKelvy,	178
Total tons,			6,078

The total number of Iron works of all kinds in the State is 504; the capital invested in lands, buildings and machinery, \$20,502,076; the number of men employed, 30,103; the number of horses employed, 13,562.

The capital invested includes only such lands and buildings as belong to the Iron master, and such as are directly dependent on the Iron works for their value.

Thus the *value* of farms, grist, and saw mills, and similar property, horses, wagons, tools, and the like; and the dwellings of workmen near large cities, are excluded, because, though belonging to the works, they have an independent value.

The *consumption of fuel* in all the Iron works of the State in 1847 was as follows:

Anthracite coal, 483,000 tons, at an average value of \$3 per ton,	\$1,449,000
Bituminous coal, 9,007,600 bushels, at 5 cents,	450,380
Wood, 1,490,252 cords, at \$2,	2,980,504
Total value,	\$4,879,884

Both wood and coal are so abundant in the State, that they have scarcely any value beyond the cost of the labor of getting them to market, and the amount sent to market is only limited by the demand.

The reader may infer from the foregoing, the immense interest which Pennsylvania has in the Iron Trade. Yet it is to be considered that only a minority of the citizens of the state are interested in the iron trade, excluding all the farmers; and while the iron *manufacturers* complain of a want of due protection against foreign competition, the iron *consumers* set themselves strongly against any change which would increase the price of an article so necessary in almost every art.

STEAMERS AND CONSUMPTION OF COAL AT SAN FRANCISCO.

NOTHING can more strongly exhibit the sudden development of commerce in this part of the world, and the gigantic arrangements so promptly made for its extension, than the steam fleet now navigating the coasts and rivers of the North Pacific.

The annexed table is designed to enumerate the ocean steamers sailing from the port of San Francisco for the southern ports, and terminating at Panama; also the ocean steamers engaged in navigating the north coast, and terminating at Portland, Oregon; and finally the fleet of steamers engaged in navigating the rivers of

Upper California—the whole amounting to 83 steam vessels, large and small, and measuring 19,600 tons.

The statement regarding the consumption of coal, is the result of a minute estimate made by Messrs. Wm. McCan & Co., of San Francisco, and may be depended upon as approaching to accuracy.

The inland fleet, including tow-boats, consists of sixty steamers, large and small. Of these there are seven whose owners import their own coal, leaving the remainder, for the most part small vessels, dependent on this market for their supply; and from an accurate investigation it appears that they consume monthly 1,100 tons, due allowance being made for such as are withdrawn for repairs and other causes.

The consumption of the seven steamers for which coals are imported, is estimated at 1,000 tons monthly; showing the total consumption of coals by the river steamers to be 2,100 tons monthly.

The directors of the ocean steamers and a portion of the river boats, are importers of coal for their own consumption. Occasionally, however, low prices may induce them to become buyers, and high prices, if their stocks permitted, might induce some to become sellers.

The monthly consumption of coal, usually dependent upon this market for its supply, may be estimated at 3,300 tons; but at present nearly all the consumers of coal are importers, so that the quantity changing hands is comparatively small. About one third of the whole consumption is anthracite, the remaining two thirds being bituminous. Of the anthracite, consumers prefer Lackawanna, and of the bituminous, the preference is given to Cardiff coals.

CALIFORNIA STEAMERS.

PACIFIC MAIL LINE FOR PANAMA.

Name.	Commander.	Reg. Ton.
Oregon	R. H. Pearson	1,099
Tennessee	Totten	1,275
Panama	Watkins	1,087
Carolina	R. L. Whiting	545
Unicorn	Nicholson	650
Northerner	H. Randall	1,000
Sarah Sands	W. C. Thompson	1,000
California	T. A. Budd	1,090

LAW'S LINE FOR PANAMA.

Republic	W. H. Hudson	820
Columbus	Hitchcock	460
Antelope	Hickley	650
Isthmus	Douglas Ottinger	386

STEAMERS FOR PANAMA AND OTHER SOUTHERN PORTS.

New Orleans	A. D. Wood	761
Constitution	S. B. Bissell	530
Ohio	R. Hay	225

OCEAN STEAM FLEET TO THE NORTH.

Gold Hunter	for Oregon	436
Chesapeake	Klamath	392
Gen. Warren	"	309
Goliah	—	335

MAIL LINE SEMI-MONTHLY FOR OREGON.

Columbia	Leroy	777
Com. Preble	Ballard	280
Sea Gull	Eyere	267

THE INLAND STEAM FLEET AND TOWING BOATS.

	Reg. Ton.		Reg. Ton.
Senator	734	Wm. Robinson	46
New World	525	Kennebec	44
Confidence	370	Jack Hays	42
Wilson G. Hunt	400	San Joaquin	39
McKim	376	Sacramento	38
Hartford	251	Maunsell White	36
West Point	139	Commodore Jones	31
H. T. Clay	154	Georgina	30
El Dorado	153	Libertad	30
Major Tompkins	151	Etna	30
Fashion	87	Ion	30
Union	87	New England	28
E. Corning	86	Missouri	27
Tehama	85	Bute	26
Miner	75	Star	22
Governor Dana	67	Yuba	19
California	61	Fire Fly	19
Jenny Lind	61	Lucy Long	18
Mariposa	60	Martha Jane	15
Victor Constant	57	Grinnell	10
Linda	52	Boston	31
Sutter	51	Lawrence	—
New Star	48	Colusa	—

GENERAL SUMMARY OF COAL CONSUMPTION.

	Tons.
Monthly consumption of coal by the River Steamers	2,100
" " " " Mail Line to Panama	500
" " " " Law's Line	500
" " " " Steamers for Southern Ports	630

Monthly consumption of coal by the steamers for Northern ports,	Tons.
Estimated consumption of coal in the city of San Francisco for domestic use	1,150
Estimated monthly consumption in San Francisco for manufacturing purposes, machine-shops, steam printing-presses, blacksmiths, &c.	300
Estimated monthly consumption in San Francisco for manufacturing purposes, machine-shops, steam printing-presses, blacksmiths, &c.	120
Total number of tons	5,300

This estimate has no reference to coals taken on board during the voyage.

A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1850.

Entered Ports of Great Britain and United States for the fiscal year, 1850.

Countries to which the vessels belong.	Great Britain.			United States.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and its dependencies	15,977	3,367,341	American	8,412	2,573,016
Russia	144	33,906	Russia	6	2,121
Sweden	316	42,041	Sweden &		
Norway	854	122,787	Norway	74	23,554
Denmark	1,697	130,815	Denmark	2	592
Prussia	489	98,348	Prussian	0	0
Other German States	1,498	142,684	Oth. Ger.	163	69,642
Holland	1,305	107,473	Holland	34	11,967
Belgium	231	33,225	Belgium	15	5,756
France	2,499	155,547	France	146	42,852
Spain	126	18,192	Spain	88	27,673
Portugal	137	12,957	Portugal	26	5,018
Italian States	295	87,783	It. States	26	7,871
Other European do.	73	21,210	Gt. Brit.	1,045	554,063
U. S. of America	842	586,805	All other	8,475	751,101
All other countries	10	993			
	26,493	4,963,063		18,512	4,348,639

Cleared same period.

Countries to which the vessels belong.	Great Britain.			United States.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and its dependencies	17,139	3,815,842	American	8,376	2,632,788
Russia	182	48,734	Russia	11	3,990
Sweden	300	41,137	Sweden &		
Norway	562	88,690	Norway	33	9,822
Denmark	1,639	132,885	Denmark	12	3,232
Prussia	480	96,320	Prussia	6	1,887
Other German States	1,277	137,830	Oth. Ger.	166	68,016
Holland	918	101,932	Holland	66	22,753

Countries to which the vessels belong.	Great Britain.		United States.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Belgium	241	37,690	Belgium	13 4,068
France	2,458	209,703	France	85 28,292
Spain	128	19,956	Spain	154 44,880
Portugal	55	6,190	Portugal	30 7,531
Italian States	286	84,219	It. States	4 960
Other European do.	71	20,756	Gt. Brit.	519 269,078
United States	790	573,007	All other	8,717 1,263,703
All other countries	10	2,926		18,195 4,361,002
				18,512 4,348,639
	26,536	5,417,817		36,707 8,709,641
Add totals above	26,493	4,963,063		
Total tonnage and en- tries and clearances	53,029	10,380,880		
	36,707	8,709,641		
Excess in favor of Great Britain	16,322	1,671,239		

TRADE OF CANADA IN 1850.

THE following is the value of Canadian imports for 1850, in Halifax currency, (four dollars to the pound):

From Great Britain	£2,407,980	4	0
“ British N. A. Colonies	96,404	19	6
“ West Indies	1,112	19	3
“ United States	1,648,715	2	5
“ Other Foreign Countries	91,303	18	4
Total Imports for 1850	£4,245,517	3	6

The duties paid on goods imported were as follows:

	Value.		Duty.
Specific duties	£654,945	19	9 2233,536 19 1
30 per cent “	42,854	9	5 12,857 6 9
20 “ “	23,319	13	10 4,663 19 5
12½ “ “	2,838,417	1	7 354,802 2 5
2½ “ “	391,846	11	9 9,769 7 0
Free goods	294,133	7	2
Total	£4,245,517	3	6 £615,645 14 8

The value of the Exports from Canada during the same period was as follows:

To Great Britain	£1,521,279	15	3
To the United States	1,237,789	17	11
To North American Colonies	202,194	1	3
To West Indies	2,094	0	0
To other countries	27,070	6	4
Total	£2,990,428	0	9

The Exports are thus classified :

Produce of the Mine	£9,145 12 0
Of the Seas	36,512 15 7
Of the Forest	1,360,734 6 4
Arrivals and their products	157,580 6 0
Vegetable food	1,046,034 6 4
Other Agricultural produce	13,439 14 10
Manufactures	6,676 19 1
Shipping,—sold abroad	320,430 0 0
Other articles	39,874 0 7
Total	£2,990,428 0 9

THE BRITISH CORN TRADE.

(Compiled from Public Papers and Parliamentary Returns.)

Foreign Grain imported into the United Kingdom.

	Quantity qrs.	Gazette av.	Market value.
14 yrs.—1815 to 1828. Wheat,	6,374,714	at 64s. 9d.	£20,638,137
Other grains,	10,788,652	at 36s. 6d.	19,689,253
Totals,	17,163,346		40,327,390
Yearly average,	1,225,232		£2,880,528
13 yrs.—1829 to 1841. Wheat,	17,566,270	at 58s. 9d.	£51,600,318
Other grains,	9,707,719	at 34s.	16,005,512
Totals,	27,273,989		67,606,430
Yearly average,	2,097,999		£5,200,494
9 yrs.—1842 to 1850. Wheat,	23,208,885	at 52s. 0½d.	£60,543,497
Other grains,	31,464,526	at 32s.	50,343,241
Totals,	54,673,411		110,886,738
Yearly average,	6,073,716		£12,320,749

Summary:

	Quantity qrs.	Official value.	Market value.	Nett duties.
1815—1828,	17,163,346	£16,921,864	40,327,390	1,924,096
1829—1841,	27,273,989	35,131,369	67,606,430	6,672,241
1842—1850,	54,673,411	71,756,904	110,886,738	5,162,358
Totals,	99,100,746	123,810,135*	218,820,558	13,758,695
Less exported,	4,355,666	5,444,582	9,639,088	
Home use,	94,755,080	£118,365,553	£209,180,470	£13,758,695
Of which,	55,484,042	during corn laws	£131,914,114	from 1815 to 1846.

* Of this there was imported into Ireland, 1829—1841, £648,964 (none before 1829) and from 1842 to 1850, £17,867,320; together, £18,516,284 by official value, but by real value, say £31,107,357, and nearly all 1846—'49. The portion for 1850 cannot yet be ascertained.

Wheat imported—stated separately.

	Quantity, qrs.	Home use, qrs.	Market value.	Home use.	Nett duty.
1815-'28, .	6,374,614		£20,638,137		
Exported, .	934,137	5,440,577	3,022,118	17,616,019	3,808,404
1829-'41, .	17,566,270		51,606,918		
Exported, .	1,713,150	15,853,120	5,077,378	46,523,540	4,425,663
1842-'50, .	23,208,885		60,643,497		
Exported, .	632,188	22,576,697	1,642,079	58,901,515	4,203,970
Totals,		43,870,394		123,041,077	12,438,037
Of which,	29,632,081		during corn laws. £86,159,043		from 1815 to 1846.

Abstract consumption foreign grain.

		Quantity, qrs.	Price.	Real value.
4 yrs.—1847—1850.	Wheat, .	14,238,313	51s. 9d.	£36,841,634
	Other grain, .	25,031,823	31s. 5d.	39,424,622
Totals,		39,270,136		76,266,564
Yearly average,		9,817,534		£19,066,564

Abstract foreign grain imported, as follows:

		Quantity, qrs.	Price.	Real value.
5 yrs.—1846—47.	Wheat, .	16,552,455	52s. 0½d.	£42,153,950
	Other grain, .	27,485,078	33s.	45,050,377
Total yearly average,		44,067,533		87,204,357
Yearly average,		8,813,526		£17,440,875

Decreased production of human food in Ireland.

	Quantity, qrs.	Gazette av. value.	Total.
1845—Grain produced, .	23,262,529	£31,297,355	
1849—“	13,958,721	14,604,261	
Decrease,	9,302,808	£16,693,094	£16,693,094

1845—Portion potatoes for food of man, .	8,251,800 tons	£16,617,500	
1849—“ “	4,014,122	12,167,500	
Decrease,	4,237,678 tons	£3,750,000	3,750,000

(See Macqueen's Statistics, p. 11.) Total decrease, £20,443,094

For years 1847-'50 yearly value of foreign grain imported into the United Kingdom, £19,066,584
 In 1850, other provisions (agricultural) and live stock, say 4,600,000

THE FACTORIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

RETURNS have just been published, in compliance with an order of the House of Commons of the 15th August, 1850, on the motion of Mr. Pilkington, the member for Blackburn, which possess great interest, as an authentic record of several of the most important branches of British industry. These are the most complete series of returns ever issued, of the number and power of the factories in the textile manufactures, with the number, age, and sex of the persons employed in them. They are not in exactly the same form as the returns made in 1834, which are to be found in the volume of "Tables of Revenue, Population, and Commerce," for that year. We cannot, therefore, compare the two series at all points. But in the most important particulars they correspond, and thus we are able to institute a comparison, and to show the remarkable progress that has been made, in the space of sixteen years, in these great departments of industry. Of course these returns apply only to the operations carried on in factories, and under the inspection of the Factory Inspectors, and they do not, therefore, include the auxiliary branches of the manufactures, such as hand-loom weavers, dyers, manufacturers of lace, hosiery, &c.

We shall look first at the largest branch of manufacturing industry under the head of the

COTTON FACTORIES—UNITED KINGDOM.

In 1834 the number of cotton factories was 1304; in 1850 it was 1932; increase 628 factories, or 48 per cent.

In the hands employed there was a somewhat greater increase, namely, from 220,134 in 1834 to 330,924 in 1850; increase 110,790, or 50 per cent.

The increase in the steam and water power employed in the cotton mills is much greater. These particulars are not given in the returns published by the Board of Trade for 1834, but they were furnished by the Factory Inspectors to Mr. Edward Baines, for his "History of the Cotton Manufacture," published at the beginning of 1835, and we extract them from that work (p. 394). In 1834, the horse power was 30,853 of steam, and 10,203 of water—total 41,056 horse power. In 1850 the horse power was 71,005 of steam, and 11,550 of water—total 82,555; being an increase of 100 per cent.

The number of spindles used in the cotton manufactures was not given in any returns of the Factory Inspectors in 1834; but it was estimated by Mr. E. Baines, on a comparison of the author-

ities of Burn, Kennedy, &c., at 9,333,000 (p. 383). In 1850 the number was 20,977,017: being an increase of 102 per cent.

The number of power looms was estimated by Mr. Baines in 1834 at 100,000; it is given in 1850 as 249,627: increase 149,627, or 150 per cent. In 1834 there were believed to be 250,000 hand loom weavers; we have no means of stating the number in 1850.

The import of cotton wool increased from 303,656,837 lbs. in 1833 to 755,469,008 lbs. in 1849; being an increase of 451,812,163 lbs., or 148 per cent.

Thus, as might have been expected, from the improvements in machinery and the speeding of the machines since 1834, the increase in the hands employed is less than the increase in the steam and water power, or in the spindles, and this again is less than the increase in the cotton wool consumed. The increase of hands has been 50 per cent., of steam and water power, 100 per cent., of spindles, 102 per cent., of power-looms, 150 per cent., and of cotton-wool consumed, 148 per cent. Thus the extent of the manufacture has immensely increased; but, owing to the mechanical improvements, the productiveness of each workman and of the machinery has increased far more: of course the consumer gains greatly by the reduction that necessarily takes place in the price of the manufactured articles; the consumption increases, and this reacts upon and increases the manufacture.

We give the particulars in a tabular form:

	In 1834.	In 1850.	Inc. per ct.
Mills,	1,304	1,932	48
Persons employed,	220,134	330,924	50
Steam power (horses),	30,853	71,005	100
Water power "	10,203	11,550	
Spindles,	9,333,000	20,977,017	102
Power looms,	100,000	249,627	150
Cotton wool, imported, lbs.	303,656,837	755,469,008	148

The principal seats of the cotton manufacture are shown by the number of factory operatives in different counties. Out of the whole number of 330,924, there are found 215,983 in Lancashire, 35,772 in Cheshire, 18,691 in Yorkshire, 22,759 in Lanarkshire, and 7,884 in Renfrewshire; the rest are scattered over other parts of the kingdom.

WOOLLEN AND WORSTED FACTORIES.

In 1834, these two branches of manufacture, which are kindred, yet distinct, were put together under the general head of "wool." They are now given separately. In 1844, there were 1,322 mills; in 1850, there were 1,497 woollen mills and 501 worsted mills,—total 1,998; increase 676 mills, or 51 per cent.

The hands employed were, in 1834, 71,274: in 1850, there were 74,443 employed in the woollen mills, and 79,737 in the worsted mills—total 154,180: increase 82,906 hands, or 116 per cent.

There is no document or authority, so far as we know, giving the steam or water power of the mills, or the number of spindles employed, in either branch of this manufacture in 1834. The quantity of foreign and colonial sheep's wool retained for home consumption in 1833 was 39,065,620 lbs.; in 1849, the quantity imported was 75,100,833 lbs. of sheep's wool, and 1,655,300 lbs. Alpaca wool—total 76,756,133 lbs. of which 12,324,415 lbs. sheep's wool and 126,082 lbs. Alpaca wool was re-exported—leaving for home consumption 64,305,836 lbs. of both kinds. Increase since 1833, 25,239,016 lbs. or 64 per cent. There are no materials for stating the quantity of British wool consumed at the two periods. Mr. McCulloch estimates the quantity of British wool used annually (eight or ten years since) at 110,000,000 lbs.; but we cannot offer any opinion on the comparative quantities in 1833 and 1849; though it may be said that the increase cannot be anything approaching to the increase in foreign and colonial wool.

It appears, then, that the increase in the number of mills in the woollen and worsted manufactures since 1834 is 51 per cent.; the increase in the hands employed 116 per cent.; and the increase in the consumption of foreign and colonial sheep's wool, which forms less than one half the wool consumed, is 64 per cent.

We give the facts in the tabular form, thus:

	In 1834.	Woollen.	In 1850. Worsted.	Total.	* Increase per ct.
Mills, . . .	1,322	1,497	501	1,998	51
Persons emp.	71,274	74,443	79,737	154,180	116
Steam power (horses),	13,455	9,890	23,345	. .
Water power (horses),	8,689	1,625	10,300	. .
Spindles,	1,595,278	875,830	2,471,108	. .
Power looms,	9,439	32,617	42,056	. .
For. and col. wool cons., lbs.	39,066,620		64,305,636		64

The Woollen mills are scattered over a greater number of counties in England, Scotland, and Ireland, than any other description of mills; but of 74,443 hands employed, there are found 40,611 in Yorkshire, 8,816 in Lancashire, 6,043 in Gloucestershire, 2,877 in Wiltshire, and 2,175 in Somersetshire.

Of the Worsted mills by very far the largest number are in Yorkshire. Out of 79,737 hands employed, 70,905 are in this county, chiefly in the parishes of Bradford, Halifax, Keighley, and Bingley.

The increase that has taken place in the Worsted manufacture since 1834 has been much greater than in the Woollen manufacture.

FLAX AND LINEN FACTORIES.

In 1834 there were 347 flax mills; in 1850 there were 393; increase 46, or 12 per cent.

But the hands employed were 33,283 in 1834, and 68,434 in 1850; increase 35,151, or 105 per cent.

The raw material imported, flax and tow, or codilla of flax and hemp, was in 1833, 1,129,633 cwts., and in 1850 it was 1,806,786 cwts.; increase 677,153 cwts., or 60 per cent.

	In 1834.	In 1850.	Increase per ct.
Mills,	347	398	12
Persons employed,	33,283	68,434	105
Steam power (horses),		10,905	..
Water power (horses),		3,387	..
Spindles,		965,031	..
Power looms,		1,141	..
Flax, &c., imported (cwts.),	1,129,633	1,806,786	60

In this manufacture both Scotland and Ireland have the advantage over England, whereas in 1834 England had nearly as many hands employed in the trade as both Scotland and Ireland. In England, out of 19,001 hands employed, 11,515 are in Yorkshire, and 2,724 in Lancashire. In Scotland, out of 28,312 hands employed, 16,264 are in Forfarshire, 4,300 in Fifeshire, and 2,899 in Aberdeen. In Ireland, out of 21,121 hands employed, 11,657 are in Antrim (Belfast), and 4,336 in Down. The soil of Ireland appears to be peculiarly favorable to the linen manufacture, which has existed in Ulster for centuries. Until lately, however, the spinning by machinery was chiefly carried on in England and Scotland: but an amazing start has been made in Ireland in this respect: in 1834 only 3,681 hands were employed in flax mills in Ireland, and in 1850 the number was 21,121; being an increase of 17,440 hands, or 474 per cent. in sixteen years!

SILK FACTORIES.

In 1834 the number of silk mills was 263; in 1850 it is 277: increase 14 mills, or 5 per cent.

The number of hands employed was 30,682 in 1834, and 42,544 in 1850; increase 11,862 hands, or 39 per cent.

The quantity of waste silk retained for home consumption in 1833 was 4,417,627 lbs., and in 1850 it was 4,518,132 lbs.; increase 100,504 lbs., or 2 per cent. The import of thrown silk was 229,119 lbs. in 1833, and 614,689 lbs. in 1849; increase 168 per cent.

	In 1834.	In 1850.	Inc. per cent.
Mills	263	277	5
Persons employed	30,682	42,544	39
Steam power (horses)	—	2,858	—
Water power (do.)	—	853	—
Spindles	—	1,225,560	—
Power looms	—	6,092	—
Silk (raw) imported, lbs.	4,417,627	4,518,132	2
Do. (thrown) do.	229,119	614,689	168

The chief seats of the silk factories are in Cheshire, Lancashire, Derbyshire, Warwickshire, and Yorkshire.

General Summary.

The number of mills has increased within the last sixteen years, from 3,236 to 4,330, or 34 per cent.; and the number of persons employed in them from 355,373 to 596,082, being an addition of 240,709 operatives, or 68 per cent.

In England and Wales, the persons employed were 295,629 in 1834, and 495,707 in 1850; being an increase of 200,078 or 67 per cent.

In Scotland, the persons employed were 50,180 in 1834, and 75,688 in 1850; being an increase of 25,508, or 51 per cent.

In Ireland, the persons employed were 9,564 in 1834, and 24,687 in 1850; being an increase of 15,123, or 158 per cent.

Persons employed in Mills.

	In 1834.	In 1850.	Inc. per cent.
In England and Wales	295,629	495,707	67
In Scotland	50,180	75,688	51
In Ireland	9,564	24,687	158
Total	355,373	596,082	68

Mills in the United Kingdom, 1850.

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
Mills	3,699	550	91	4,330
Spindles	22,850,010	2,256,403	532,303	25,638,716
Power Looms	272,588	23,811	2,517	298,916
Moving Power				
Steam (horses)	96,610	13,857	2,646	103,113
Water (do.)	18,214	6,004	1,886	26,104

The entire moving power, of steam and water, is equal to 134,217 horses, which, reckoning the power of a horse to be equal to that of $5\frac{1}{2}$ men, shows an aggregate mechanical power used in the textile manufactures of the United Kingdom equal to 738,193 men. If we add the 596,082 human beings employed in directing this machinery, it would appear that the factories of the kingdom employ a power equal to 1,334,275 persons, besides ministering to

the support of many hundred thousands of persons in dependent and auxiliary branches of manufacture and trade.

Only one other point calls for attention, namely, the ages and sexes of the factory operatives. In 1834 there were, under 13 years of age 27,774 boys and 28,681 girls—total 56,455: in 1850 there were under 13 years 21,137 boys and 19,638 girls—total 40,775: showing a *decrease* of 6,637 boys and 9,043 girls—total 15,680, or 28 per cent. The effect of the Factory Act has, therefore, been greatly to reduce the quantity of juvenile labor in the mills. This is considered by some an advantage; but in order to be sure of that, we ought to know how the children who are excluded from the mills are employed or engaged. The number of males from 13 to 18 years of age was 43,482 in 1834, and 67,864 in 1850; increase 24,382, or 56 per cent.

In 1834 the number of females from 13 to 18 years of age was 64,726, and above 18 years of age 103,411,—total 168,137. In 1850 no distinction was made, as all females above 13 years of age are subject to the same regulations; their number was 329,577; showing an increase above 1834 of 161,440, or 96 per cent.

The number of males above 18 years of age was 87,299 in 1834, and 157,866 in 1850; showing an increase of 70,567, or 81 per cent.

There has, therefore, been a decrease of 28 per cent. in the number of children employed between 1834 and 1850; an increase of 56 per cent. in males from 13 to 18 years of age; an increase of 96 per cent. in females above 13 years of age; and an increase of 81 per cent. in the male adults. Balance of increase on the aggregate, 68 per cent.

Persons employed in Mills, 1834 and 1850.

	In 1834.	In 1850.	Increase or Decrease per cent.
Children under 13 years of age	56,455	40,775	• 28 decrease.
Males from 13 to 18 . . .	43,482	67,864	56 increase.
Females above 13 . . .	168,137	329,577	96 decrease.
Males above 18 . . .	87,299	157,866	81 increase.
	<u>355,373</u>	<u>596,082</u>	68 increase.

Lancashire and Yorkshire are the two great manufacturing counties, and the following are the number and classes of factory operatives found in them respectively:—

Operatives in	In Lancashire.	In Yorkshire.
Cotton Mills	215,983	18,691
Woollen do.	8,816	40,611
Worsted do.	1,821	70,905
Flax do.	2,724	11,515
Silk do.	8,208	1,688
	<u>237,552</u>	<u>143,410</u>

It may throw some additional light on the progress of manufactures and commerce if we state that, in the year 1833, the real or declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported was £39,667,347, and in 1849 it was £58,848,042,—increase £19,180,695, or 49 per cent.

STEEL MANUFACTURES OF SHEFFIELD.

THE London Patent Journal, in an article descriptive of the Steel manufacture of Sheffield, and its share in the great Exhibition, gives the following interesting statistics :

Judging from the state of trade, the production of steel in Sheffield, in 1850, could not have been less than 23,000, probably 25,000 tons, though the average produce of the last five years would probably not exceed 17,500 to 19,000 tons. We have no means of ascertaining the quantity of steel used in the home manufactures, but, judging from the annexed statement of the exports of steel, we feel convinced that we are not far short of the mark in the above calculation.

The following table shows the progress of the steel trade, at quinquennial periods, during the last thirty years ; the second column showing the quantity exported, and the third column the export to the United States, which is our principal market.

Years.	Tons.	Tons.
1820,	326	85
1825,	533	130
1830,	832	397
1835,	2,810	1,886
1840,	2,583	1,202
1844,	5,121	2,376
1849,	8,085	5,216

The quantity exported in 1850 was 10,587 tons, of the declared value of £393,659.

COTTON STATISTICS OF BRITAIN IN 1850.

THE imports for the year, from all quarters, amounted to 1,749,000 bales, against 1,906,000 the previous year, a decrease of 157,000 bales. The consumption has been 1,514,000 bales, against 1,590,000 the previous year, a decrease of but 76,000 bales. The exports are 272,000 bales against 254,000 the previous year, being an excess of 18,000 bales. Taking the consumption and exports

together, the difference between the two years is but 59,000 bales. This result is highly favorable to the growers of cotton, and is an effectual answer to the dismal forebodings and unfounded conclusions of many on either side of the Atlantic, that any considerable advance in prices would materially reduce the consumption, and prove disastrous to the manufacturing interests. The fact, however, has been established, that at an advanced range of prices, averaging for the past year 50 per cent. over those of 1849, the consumption of Great Britain has fallen off but 3 per cent. ! and the manufacturing interests were never more prosperous. The past history of cotton shows that an advance of price to $8\frac{1}{2}d.$, has never materially affected consumption.

The Import of American cotton in Great Britain during the year just closed, was 1,184,000 bales ; her Consumption and Export, 1,230,000 bales, or 54,000 bales more than the Import. Her stock, though 75,000 bales more of this year's crop was received than in 1849, is, nevertheless, diminished by 40,000 bales. Our crop in 1851 is estimated at 2,150,000 bales, every bale of which will be consumed ; and more will be wanted. The stocks in France and on the Continent, are small. These markets will require 800,000 bales ; the consumption of this country will require 500,000 bales, and with these deductions, Great Britain cannot easily obtain a supply equal to her consumption of the past year. Could the dealers and cotton-growers of the United States, withhold supplies for three months, and thus compel her to prove her stocks by working them up, it is supposed that the price of cotton would advance much beyond former rates.

The reports from Britain appear to have purposely understated for some years back, in order that the disclosure of the large amount on hand might afterwards lower prices when the planters had raised a large crop, in expectation of high prices. This fact should be a warning for the future.

FURTHER STATISTICS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

(From a recent London publication.)

Property in the soil of the United Kingdom.

Annual rental of the land of Great Britain	£45,753,610
Rental of the land in Ireland	17,618,876
Value (according to 80 years' purchase) of the land in Great Britain and Ireland	1,901,144,760
Poor rates of England and Wales	5,271,264
Farmers' live stock, dead stock, wages, and supplies	604,833,730

Produce of the soil of the United Kingdom.

Wheat, annual value	£73,059,700
Barley, "	30,888,000
Oats, "	62,302,000
Potatoes, "	51,800,000
Gardens, "	31,600,000
Straw, "	108,593,462
Turnips "	36,400,000
Hay, clover, rye, grass, and the meadows	78,750,000
Best pasture	106,250,000
Tares, chicory, carrots, &c.	19,800,000
Grazing, second-class pasture	58,500,000
Natural grazing, rivers, sites, towns, &c.	7,380,470
Forests, trees, &c.	16,000,000
Hops, flax, and hemp	5,500,000
Lime, stone, bricks, and clay	24,000,000
Iron, coal, lead, tin, copper, salt, &c.	50,000,000
Grand total of the produce of the soil of the United Kingdom	670,524,132

Investment of capital. Estimated capital vested in the following branches of business.

Capital vested in land	£3,109,778,940
Do. do. in cultivating land	604,833,730
	<u>3,714,612,670</u>
Do. do. cotton trade	£45,000,000
Do. do. woollen do.	38,000,000
Do. do. linen do.	12,000,000
Do. do. silk do.	12,000,000
Do. do. leather do.	15,000,000
Do. do. iron, hardware, and cutlery	30,000,000
Do. do. copper and brass trade	3,700,000
Do. do. coal trade	18,000,000
Do. do. glass, china, &c.	8,000,000
Do. do. paper, books, colors, &c.	10,000,000
Do. do. spirits, porter, &c.	37,000,000
	<u>228,700,000</u>

The Iron Trade of the United Kingdom.

The value of that which is consumed at home is estimated at the declared value of that which is exported.

Imported 1847	Tons.	33,317
Made 1847		1,999,608
Total for use		<u>2,032,925</u>
Pig iron exported	Tons.	176,036
Wrought do. (bar, bolt, &c.)		373,673
Hardware and cutlery, do.		20,615
		<u>570,324</u>
Remain for home use		1,462,601

Divided thus :

	Tons.		
Wrought and unwrought . . .	1,059,608		
Hardware and cutlery, do. . .	402,993		
			1,462,601
Wrought and unwrought, home use	1,059,608	at £958 =	£10,151,544
Hardware and cutlery	302,192	at 1,136	45,780,000
Total home consumption			55,931,544
Total value exported	£7,607,760		
Of which to British possessions	1,236,522		
			1,236,522
Leaves for foreign parts	6,371,238		
British consumption			57,168,066
Add foreign			6,371,238
Value of iron trade, 1847			63,539,304

REMARKS.

The whole material is the produce of the British soil and British labor. Besides persons immediately employed in the greater branches of the manufacture (47,554 are engaged in mining), 323,681 individuals in Great Britain are engaged in different trades of which iron is the staple.

The export to the home consumption is only about *one tenth*. In 1846, 147 tons iron were manufactured into 300,000,000 steel pens, which, at the value of one eighth of a penny each, would amount to £166,250.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

A PARLIAMENTARY return has been printed, showing the public income and expenditure, the taxes imposed, repealed, or reduced, and the imports and exports, from 1822 down to 1850, both inclusive. It appears that in 1822 the revenue paid into the exchequer was £54,135,143, and the expenditures amounted to £49,391,225, leaving a surplus of £4,744,518. In 1826 the revenue was £50,241,408, and the expenditure £50,887,328, leaving a deficiency of £645,920. In 1827 there was a deficiency of £826,675; in 1831, of £698,858; in 1837, of £655,760; in 1838, £345,227; in 1839, of £1,512,793; in 1840, of £1,593,971; in 1841, of £2,101,370; and in 1842, of £3,979,539. In 1843 there was a surplus of £1,443,604; in 1844, a surplus of £3,356,105; in 1845, of £3,817,642; in 1846, of £2,846,308. In 1847 there

was again a deficiency of income of £2,956,684; and in 1848 of £796,419. In 1849 there was a surplus of £2,098,126; in 1850, of £2,578,806; and in 1851, of £2,726,396. The declared or real value of the total exports from the United Kingdom in 1822 was £53,470,090; and of the imports, £30,531,141. In 1832 the value of the exports was £76,070,148; and of the imports, £44,610,546. In 1842 the imports had increased to £113,841,802; and the exports to £65,243,286; while in 1850 the exports were of the value of £197,309,876, and the imports of £100,460,433. The total amount of tunnage of ships entered inward in the ports of the United Kingdom in 1822 was 2,132,778; of which 1,663,627 was British, and 469,151 foreign. The total tunnage outward in the same year was 1,996,802; of which 1,539,260 was British, and 457,542 foreign. In 1851 the tunnage entering inward amounted to 7,872,094; of which 4,938,386 were British, and 2,933,708 foreign. The tunnage which cleared outward in the same year was 8,108,104; of which, 4,882,490 were British, 3,225,614 foreign.

THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

THE official accounts of the revenues and disbursements of the East India Company have been published for the years 1846-47, 1847-48, 1848-49. The net revenues of the Bengal Presidency for the above years have amounted respectively to 8,80,81,004 rupees,* 7,73,93,036, and 7,89,12,192. Those of the northwestern provinces have been 4,95,21,708 rupees, 5,00,51,482, and 4,99,83,128. The total net revenues therefore were 13,76,02,712 rupees, 12,74,44,518, and 12,88,95,320. The total charges for the same years have been 11,14,23,671 rupees, 11,24,91,624, and 11,23,87,912; the net surplus for each year accordingly has been 2,61,80,325 rupees, 1,49,54,982, and 1,65,08,584. The total estimated revenues for 1840-50, including those from the Punjab and Trans-Indus territory, estimated at 1,35,05,000 rupees, and rated at 15,15,44,862 rupees, and the charges at 12,07,47,610 rupees, giving a surplus of 3,07,97,652 rupees.

RAILROADS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

WE find in the British Almanac, an interesting article upon railroad operations in the United Kingdom, for 1851. From this we learn that 1851, like the two preceding years, has produced a

* The Bengal rupee is worth half a dollar, very nearly.

moderate amount of legislation concerning railroads. In 1848, the number of acts was 83; this fell to 35 in 1849, and to 36 in 1850, while in 1851 there was a rising tendency, the number being 59. Of these, 36 were in England, 9 in Scotland, 8 in Ireland, 5 in Wales, and 1 in Canada. Of the whole number, however, only about 20 gave authority for the continuation of new lines. The balance were principally amendatory acts.

On the 30th of June, 1850, there were 6,308 miles of railroads open for traffic in the United Kingdom, having 2,030 stations, and employing 60,325 persons, giving 1 station and 28 officials and servants to every three miles. There were at the same time 864 miles in progress of construction, on which 58,884 persons were employed. During the year 625 miles were opened, and the total length completed at the beginning of 1851, was 6,621 miles, of which 5,132 were in England and Wales, 951 in Scotland, and 538 in Ireland. The following table exhibits the number of miles opened during the years named:

1843 (and earlier)	2,036 miles.
1844	202 "
1845	296 "
1846	606 "
1847	803 "
1848	1,182 "
1849	869 "
1850	625 "
1851	864 "

Added to this there were 4,831 miles not commenced, but which had been authorized by acts of Parliament.

The total amount of capital down to 1851, was about £355,000,000, excluding abandoned schemes.

The total receipts of all the railroads in the United Kingdom, for the years named, were as follows:

	Total.	Weekly av. pr. mile.
1842	£4,341,781	£60
1843	4,842,625	59
1844	5,610,982	63
1845	6,669,224	66
1846	7,689,874	62
1847	8,975,871	55
1848	10,659,006	49
1849	11,013,817	44
1850	12,755,235	43

The average cost per mile of all the railroads constructed in Great Britain, is £35,000, or about \$175,000.

It is interesting to observe the increase of third class travelling, relatively, to first and second class :

	First.	Second.	Third.
1845 . . .	17 . . .	43 . . .	40=100
1850 . . .	12 . . .	36 . . .	52=100

The following table shows the change in the money receipts :

	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.
1845 . . .	£38 . . .	£43 . . .	£19=100
1850 . . .	30 . . .	40 . . .	30=100

The goods traffic relatively to the passenger traffic during the same period :

	Passengers.	Goods.
1845 . . .	£63 . . .	£37=100
1850 . . .	52 . . .	48=100

The average charge for conveying one ton of goods is almost precisely the same as paid by average passengers.

It has been found, on a careful analysis of the working of the principal railroads for a series of years, that for every £100 working expenses, the distribution averages nearly as follows :

Direction and management	£10.52
Way and works	15.76
Locomotive power	23.15
Carrying department	38.87
	<hr/> 100.00

The rails and their supports on one mile of the Great Western road comprise about 400 loads of timber, and 500 cwts. of iron.

It appears that the railroads insure passengers against accidents, both on periodical and single journey tickets; nearly all the companies now afford facilities for carrying out the principle. The legal liability of the companies in the U. States answers about the same purpose, yet there are some cases that it would not reach.

A Report on the Railways of the United Kingdom has been published by Captain J. L. A. Simmons, Government Inspector, from which it appears that the number of miles open for traffic at the close of 1851, was, in England and Wales, 5,306 miles; in Scotland, 960; Ireland, 624; total, 6,890. The sums raised annually for Railway purposes previous to the year 1848, cannot be ascertained; but since that period Parliament has required returns, which show the calls for 1848 to have been £33,234,418; in 1849, £29,574,720, and in 1850, £10,522,267. The diminution is remarkable. The return of the sums raised in 1851 have not all, as yet, been received, and therefore cannot be stated. During the year, 36 passengers were killed, and 375 injured by

railway accidents. In the previous year, 32 were killed, and 183 injured by railway accidents. The number of passengers conveyed on all the railways in the kingdom during the year, amounted to 85,391,095, being an increase of 17 per cent. over the previous year; value of passenger traffic £7,960,764, an increase of 16 per cent., and value of goods traffic £7,020,695, an increase of 10½ per cent. over the previous year. Aggregate revenue of all railways for 1851, close on £15,000 Sterling, an increase of 13½ per cent. on the receipts of 1850.

POST OFFICE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

THE gross receipts of the British Post Office for the year ending January 5, 1851, was \$11,323,420; cost of management, \$7,303,925; net revenue, \$4,019,490. The estimated total number of letters in 1850, was 347,069,071; number of money orders, 4,439,713, and the amount of them, \$42,472,490.

TEA-TRADE OF SHANG-HAE.

(From the North China Herald.)

THE rapid increase in the export of tea from this port appears from the following table:

	Quantities ex., lbs.	Progressive inc., lbs.	Remarks.
1844, . . .	1,558,453		
1845, . . .	9,388,422	7,829,969	
1846, . . .	10,073,578	685,156	{ Year of Alum's bankruptcy.
1847, . . .	13,313,599	3,240,021	
	34,334,052		

The prices for the black teas most esteemed in the English market, have averaged lower than in any former year; how far these prices may prove sufficiently remunerative to the producers, has not been very certainly ascertained. We exported hence,

	lbs.	Value at
In 1846,	10,073,578	£422,263
In 1847,	13,313,599	382,019
Increased quantity, . . .	3,240,021	Diminished value, £40,244

so that with more than three million pounds of tea additional, the whole export has been estimated at £40,000 less than the smaller quantity of the preceding year.

In green teas the competition with the Americans has kept

the prices higher; little comparatively therefore has been purchased for English consumption, and if there be any doubt of the black teas having proved remunerative to the native merchants this last year, it is, on the other hand, admitted by the tea men, that the green teas have yielded a large profit.

The proportions of black and green tea purchased by the only parties in the market, the British and Americans, are as follows:

British.—Black tea,	11,486,334 lbs.
American.— “	315,033 lbs.
Excess in favor of British,	11,171,301 lbs.
British.—Green tea,	1,827,265 lbs.
American.— “	2,234,850 lbs.
Excess in favor of Americans,	407,585 lbs.

An effort has been made calculated materially to promote the rapid extension of the tea trade. The system adopted at Canton has been commenced at Shanghae, of sending parties under agreement with our merchants into the tea districts with ready cash to purchase certain descriptions of teas, and this will be one of the surest means of securing a fair proportion of the best qualities for the Shanghae market, the great desideratum hitherto. The progress of the tea trade here has been sufficiently rapid, and the actual quantity exported sufficiently large to make the relative facilities and advantages of shipments at Shanghae and Canton a question of importance both in a commercial and political sense. To have drawn to the port something like a quarter of the annual shipments of tea in four years from so powerful a rival, with all the advantages derived from capital and long prescriptive custom still in favor of Canton, argues local facilities of great value.

One of the chief of these appears to be, if not nearer proximity to, at least more easy and less costly transit from the districts producing the black and green teas.

Of the Congous known to the foreign merchants as the Moning, Ningchew, and Hohow teas, the taste for which has so greatly increased of late years, that their consumption, I am informed, has attained nearly 28,000,000 lbs., about 8,000,000 lbs. have been purchased in Shanghae during the last year.

The black teas exported under the East India Company were believed to be the produce almost entirely of the Bohea Hills, in the Province of Fo-Kien. Later information would lead to the conviction that few of the provinces of China are without tea cultivation south of the Yang-tse-kiang, though the more western territories probably supply no portion for exportation. From all the information which has reached me I believe the foreign mar-

kets are chiefly, if not exclusively, supplied by the four provinces of Gan-hway, Ki-ang-soo, Che-kiang, and Fo-Kien.

The names given to the class of teas already mentioned (Moring, Ning-chew, and Ho-how), appear to be derived from towns and districts.

The finest and highest grades of teas, as a general rule, have hitherto been directed to Canton, from the greater wealth of the Canton mercantile body interested in bringing them to that port, who have taken steps to insure this object through their agents sent into the tea country, and from the larger market it affords, backed by the influence of old habit, peculiarly binding upon Chinese. It is obvious that the additional expense of transit to Canton diminishes in importance as the first cost or value of the tea increases, and consequently bears very unequally upon the dearer and finer kinds, and those of inferior qualities, for which the nearer market of Shanghae is naturally preferred, even though they realize from 10 to 15 per cent. less than the rates ruling in Canton. This, or a still larger percentage, being no doubt saved by the proximity of the market, and consequent diminution of expenses. The green teas in like manner have been procurable here from 10 to 20 per cent. cheaper than at Canton, by which the Americans, as it has been stated, have been the chief gainers, higher prices having been given than British exporters could with prudence offer; the American home market not suffering under the same excessive supply and consequent depression as our own, better prices will be realized by the importers.

* * * * *

From these data, keeping in view the progress observable in the shipments of tea from this port since the commencement of 1844, it may fairly be assumed that at no distant period Shanghae will at least divide equally with Canton the amount of tea exports; and should obstacles arise to our commerce at the latter port, the transfer of the whole trade (exclusive perhaps of the produce Kwangtung, of insignificant quantity) will easily and naturally follow.

EXPORTS OF TEA FROM HONGKONG.

The following interesting tables of exports are from the *China Mail*, for which we are indebted to A. H. Palmer, Esq. of Washington, D. C.

Export of Tea to the Continent of Europe.

Date and Ships.	Green.	Black.	Pounds.
Year 1846-7, in 15 vessels, . .	1,004,945	3,329,921	4,334,866
Year 1847-8, in 7 vessels, . .	433,400	1,618,300	2,051,700
Year 1848-9, in 8 vessels, . .	289,400	1,511,400	1,800,800
Year 1849-50, in 19 vessels, .	409,800	3,703,200	4,113,000
1851—Jan., in 1 vessel, . . .	9,100	154,400	163,500
“ Feb., in 1 vessel, . . .	52,600	192,900	245,500
“ March, in 1 vessel, . . .	53,100	250,800	303,900
“ June, in 1 vessel, . . .	14,800	258,000	272,800
“ Aug., in 1 vessel,	505,100
“ Oct., in 1 vessel, . . .	41,300	147,200	188,500
“ Nov., in 1 vessel,	11,400	247,800
“ Dec. 17, Sea Gull, . . .	23,600	102,700	126,300

Export of Tea to the United States.

Date and Ships.	Green.	Black.	Pounds.
Year end. June 30, 1845, . . .	13,812,099	6,950,459	20,762,558
Year end. June 30, 1846, in 40 ves.,	14,236,082	4,266,166	18,502,285
Year end. June 30, 1847, in 37 ves.,	13,853,132	4,318,496	18,171,628
Year end. June 30, 1848, in 38 ves.,	15,345,030	3,993,617	19,338,640
Year end. June 30, 1849, in 37 ves.,	13,818,700	4,853,600	18,672,300
Year end. June 30, 1850, in 44 ves.,	14,396,400	7,361,400	21,757,800
Year end. June 30, 1851, in 64 ves.,	15,215,700	13,545,100	28,760,800
1851-2—July, in 4 vessels, . . .	827,700	339,800	1,167,500
“ Aug., in 6 vessels, . . .	1,221,600	410,500	1,632,100
“ Sept., in 7 vessels, . . .	2,561,900	535,500	3,097,400
“ Oct., in 10 vessels, . . .	2,737,600	2,864,500	5,602,100
“ Nov., in 8 vessels, . . .	3,287,300	954,300	4,241,600
“ Dec.,* in 7 vessels, . . .	2,561,100	1,310,600	3,871,700
“ Jan.,† in 7 vessels, . . .	1,081,100	2,330,600	2,391,800
“ Feb. 2, Adelaide,† . . .	385,300	23,300	408,600
“ Feb. 4, Oriental,† . . .	418,700	140,200	658,900
“ Feb. 10, Eureka (sh.) . . .	27,200	789,200	825,400
“ Feb. 19, Mandarin,† . . .	363,400	363,400	726,800
“ Feb. 27, Eureka (bk.) . . .	111,400	137,700	249,100
“ March 12, Mermaid . . .	320,400	6,900	327,300
“ March 21, Sea Witch,† . . .	294,400	321,200	615,600
“ March 22, Raven, . . .	110,700	347,800	458,500

* The *Edward Boustead's* cargo, formerly included in December exports, is now omitted, she having gone to British North America.

† Loaded at Shanghai.

Export of Tea and Raw Silk to Great Britain.

Date and Ship.	Black.	Green.	Pounds.	Silk, bales.
Year 1843-44, in 79 ves.,	41,639,400	8,974,200	50,613,600	...
Year 1844-45, in 105 ves.,	41,373,300	12,196,900	53,570,200	10,727
Year 1845-46, in 117 ves.,	44,975,500	12,609,100	57,584,600	18,600
Year 1846-47, in 106 ves.,	45,501,000	7,864,000	53,365,000	19,000
Year 1847-48, in 92 ves.,*	40,730,600	6,963,700	47,694,300	21,377
Year 1848-49, in 86 ves.,	38,763,500	8,479,200	47,242,700	17,228
Year 1849-50, in 98 ves.,	45,841,200	8,120,600	53,961,800	16,134
Year 1850-51—Canton,	36,012,700	6,191,300	42,204,000	5,260
“ “ Shanghai,	19,853,100	1,963,000	21,816,100	16,883

DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Summary of the Debt of the United States, the Value of Imports and Exports, and the Tonnage, from 1791 to 1850.

Years.	Debt.	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage.
1791	\$75,463,476	\$52,200,000	\$19,012,041	502,146
1792	77,227,924	31,500,000	20,753,098	564,437
1793	80,352,634	31,100,000	26,109,572	491,780
1794	78,427,405	34,600,000	33,026,233	628,817
1795	80,747,587	69,756,268	47,989,472	747,964
1796	83,762,172	81,436,164	67,064,097	831,900
1797	82,064,479	75,379,406	56,850,206	876,913
1798	79,228,529	68,551,700	61,527,097	898,328
1799	78,408,670	79,068,148	78,665,522	946,408
1800	82,976,294	91,252,768	70,971,780	972,492
1801	83,038,051	111,363,511	94,115,925	1,033,219
1802	80,712,632	76,333,333	72,483,160	892,101
1803	77,054,686	64,666,666	55,800,033	949,147
1804	86,427,121	85,000,000	77,699,074	1,042,404
1805	82,312,150	120,000,000	95,566,021	1,140,369
1806	75,723,271	129,000,000	101,536,963	1,208,735
1807	69,218,399	138,500,000	108,343,150	1,268,548
1808	65,196,318	56,990,000	22,439,960	1,242,595
1809	57,023,192	59,400,000	52,203,231	1,350,281
1810	53,173,217	85,400,000	66,757,974	1,424,783
1811	48,005,588	53,400,000	61,316,831	1,232,502
1812	45,209,738	77,030,000	38,527,236	1,269,997
1813	55,962,828	22,005,000	27,855,997	1,666,628
1814	81,487,846	12,965,000	6,927,441	1,159,209
1815	99,833,660	113,041,274	52,557,753	1,368,127

* Including vessels lost—1847, *Romeo*, 806,200 lb., and *Siam*, 590,100 lb.—1849, *Sarah Trotman*, 370,800 lb.—1850, *Palmyra*, 556,000 lb and *Glencairn*, 322,340 lb.

Years.	Debt.	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage.
1816	127,334,934	147,103,000	81,920,452	1,372,218
1817	123,491,965	99,250,000	87,671,569	1,399,911
1818	103,466,634	121,750,000	93,281,133	1,225,184
1819	95,529,648	87,125,000	70,142,521	1,260,751
1820	91,015,566	74,450,000	69,691,669	1,280,166
1821	89,987,428	62,585,724	64,974,382	1,298,958
1822	93,546,677	83,241,541	72,160,281	1,324,699
1823	90,875,877	77,579,267	74,699,030	1,336,565
1824	90,269,778	80,549,007	75,986,657	1,389,163
1825	83,788,433	96,340,075	99,535,388	1,423,112
1826	81,054,060	84,974,477	77,595,322	1,534,190
1827	73,987,357	79,484,068	82,324,827	1,620,608
1828	67,475,044	88,509,824	72,264,686	1,741,392
1829	58,421,414	74,492,527	72,358,671	1,260,978
1830	48,565,406	70,876,920	73,849,508	1,191,776
1831	39,123,192	103,191,134	81,310,583	1,267,846
1832	24,322,235	101,029,266	87,176,943	1,439,450
1833	7,001,699	108,118,311	90,140,433	1,601,150
1834	4,760,082	126,521,332	103,336,973	1,758,907
1835	37,733	149,895,742	121,693,577	1,824,940
1836	37,513	189,980,035	128,663,040	1,892,102
1837	1,878,224	140,989,217	117,419,376	1,896,685
1838	4,857,660	108,486,616	113,717,404	1,995,639
1839	11,983,738	121,028,416	162,092,132	2,096,478
1840	5,125,078	131,571,950	104,805,891	2,180,764
1841	6,737,398	127,946,177	121,851,803	2,130,744
1842	15,028,486	100,162,087	104,691,534	2,092,390
1843	26,898,953	64,753,799*	84,346,480*	2,158,602
1844	26,143,996	108,435,035†	111,200,046†	2,280,095
1845	16,801,647	117,254,564†	114,646,606†	2,417,002
1846	24,256,495	121,691,797†	113,488,516†	2,562,084
1847	45,659,659	146,545,638†	158,648,622†	2,839,046
1848	65,804,450	154,977,928†	154,036,436†	3,154,041
1849	64,704,693	147,857,439†	145,755,820†	3,334,015
1850	64,228,238	178,138,318†	136,946,912†	3,535,454

* Only nine months of 1843.

† For the year ending June 30, 1843.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE VARIOUS STATES IN 1851.

States.	Absolute Debt.	Contingent Debt.	Total Debt.	Annual Interest on Absolute Debt.	Amount of School Fund.	Other Produc- tive Property.	Other Prop- erty not now Productive.	Ordinary an- nual Expen- diture, exclu- sive of Debits and Schools.
Maine,	\$600,500		\$600,500					\$150,000
New Hampshire,	76,000		76,000					80,000
Vermont,	None.		None.		None.	None.		100,000
Massachusetts,	1,210,375	\$5,049,565	6,259,930	63,948	None.	None.	\$1,315,000	500,000
Rhode Island,	None.		None.		None.	None.		50,000
Connecticut,	33,000	58,212	91,212	1,980	2,076,602	406,000		115,000
New York,	22,530,802	933,036	23,463,838	1,235,360	6,578,074	35,115,237		750,000
New Jersey,	71,810		71,810	4,308	377,929	262,986		90,000
Pennsylvania,	40,316,362		40,316,362	2,037,500		32,112,735		350,000
Delaware,	None.		None.		225,000	190,000		11,000
Maryland,	10,960,691	4,463,639	15,424,330	650,000		7,342,527	15,910,013	170,000
Virginia,	11,248,962	8,947,894	15,196,856	560,000	1,533,710	7,060,565	6,052,266	600,000
North Carolina,	None.	977,000	977,000					75,000
South Carolina,	2,061,292		2,061,292	110,000		5,000,000		115,000
Georgia,	1,828,472		1,828,772	110,223	262,300	10,000	15,635	131,000
Florida,	None.		None.					45,000
Alabama,	8,539,110		8,539,110	418,627	995,220	2,866,907		100,000
Mississippi,	2,271,707	5,000,000	7,271,707	136,000			2,000,000	130,000
Louisiana,	915,566	10,577,000	11,492,566	70,000			2,416,938	515,000
Texas,	12,435,982		12,435,982					100,000
Arkansas,	1,506,562		1,506,562	90,131				35,000
Tennessee,	3,352,856		3,352,856	179,176	1,346,068	4,837,530		165,000
Kentucky,	4,397,637		4,397,637	258,000	1,400,270	6,000,000	1,101,390	250,000
Ohio,	18,744,594		18,744,594	1,124,536	615,625	18,000,000		200,000
Michigan,	2,529,872		2,529,872	150,000	500,000	628,900		125,000
Indiana,	6,775,522		6,775,522	234,678	1,690,215			80,000
Illinois,	16,627,509		16,627,509			5,000,000		125,000
Missouri,	922,261		922,261	75,000		382,034		110,000
Iowa,	79,442		79,442	5,324	575,668			25,000
Wisconsin,	12,892		12,892		132,909			20,000
California,	485,460		485,460		538,094			500,000
Total,	170,535,238	31,006,386	201,541,624	7,555,351	20,456,605	134,936,578	29,855,912	6,812,000

Statement of the Amount Appropriated each Year since the organization of the U. S. Government, for the Expense of Courts, and the Amount of Fines and Penalties received for the same purpose.—Also, the Amount Paid each Year for Expenses of Courts, and for Prosecutions for Fines and Penalties,—from 1789 to 1849.

Years.	Amount Appropriated for Expenses of Courts.	Amount received for Custom House Fines and Penalties.	Amount received from Fines and Penalties, and other sources.	Gross amount applicable to expenses of Courts, including Fines and Penalties.	Amount paid for Expenses of Courts and for Prosecutions for Fines and Penalties each Year.			Gross amount of expenses of Courts, and of expenses for Prosecution for Fines and Penalties, each year.	Excess of Fines and Penalties beyond the expense of Prosecution.	Excess of expense of Prosecution for Fines and Penalties beyond receipts from same.
					From the Judiciary Fund.	From the Customs for Prosecutions Penalties before they reached the Treasury.	From other sources for Prosecutions &c.			
To Dec. 1791	\$2,384 25	\$4,234 95	\$311 00	\$6,930 20	\$2,384 25	\$490 62	\$	\$2,874 87	\$4,055 33	\$
" 1792	9,000 00	479 61	118 00	9,597 61	18,126 98	178 15	18,305 13	419 46
" 1793	12,000 00	1,931 49	13,931 49	14,364 63	552 89	14,917 52	1,378 60
" 1794	12,000 00	2,099 27	14,699 27	15,687 52	1,038 37	19,725 89	1,660 90
" 1795	12,000 00	3,473 22	15,473 22	22,806 79	486 31	416 00	23,709 10	2,570 91
" 1796	20,000 00	3,337 19	23,337 19	31,837 88	1,271 59	1,904 14	35,013 61	161 46
" 1797	30,000 00	15,613 12	220 00	45,833 12	96,528 12	2,323 34	538 95	29,390 41	12,970 83
" 1798	30,000 00	8,199 23	8 00	38,207 23	16,947 42	184 10	17,131 52	15,023 13
" 1799	30,000 00	10,726 38	16,421 81	57,148 19	36,690 24	615 05	11,183 00	48,488 29	15,350 14
" 1800	33,400 00	14,889 09	14,019 84	62,308 93	49,526 34	3,940 70	162 00	53,229 04	24,806 23
" 1801	30,000 00	20,993 37	2,492 54	53,485 91	34,902 45	127 06	300 00	35,329 51	23,058 85
" 1802	56,900 00	16,893 15	1,971 96	75,765 11	46,911 39	700 08	7,173 69	54,755 16	10,991 34
" 1803	43,702 66	15,343 23	1,008 55	60,054 44	41,441 43	1,278 52	1,244 00	43,963 95	13,889 26
" 1804	40,000 00	10,724 00	2,276 39	53,000 39	36,208 66	1,912 45	2,354 07	40,475 18	8,733 87
" 1805	40,000 00	30,167 76	1,359 17	71,526 93	49,882 21	1,147 03	531 00	51,560 24	29,848 90
" 1806	40,000 00	3,263 14	363 14	44,600 97	55,037 68	665 90	500 00	56,303 58	3,525 07
" 1807	40,000 00	444 80	444 80	44,676 15	95,479 59	24,883 51	120,363 10	20,207 36
" 1808	40,000 00	11,552 09	2,572 00	54,124 09	67,654 40	3,057 57	450 00	71,161 97	10,616 52
" 1809	40,000 00	35,305 74	176 00	78,481 74	81,737 22	5,774 56	25 00	87,336 78	32,682 18
" 1810	40,000 00	73,746 80	100 00	113,846 80	78,138 13	10,659 44	632 20	89,429 77	62,555 16

To Dec. 1811....	40,000 00	33,434 58	11,125 94	84,559 82	64,999 03	2,807 37	98 50	67,904 90	41,633 95
" 1812....	40,000 00	86,209 58	1,190 00	127,399 58	60,465 41	4,019 31	752 49	71,237 21	82,627 78
" 1813....	40,000 00	175,030 49	2,256 21	217,286 70	73,037 92	3,767 92	1,200 00	78,005 84	172,318 78
" 1814....	40,000 00	263,739 81	2,536 13	306,275 94	82,050 61	7,193 75	1,541 02	90,785 38	257,541 17
" 1815....	40,000 00	190,356 70	230,346 70	83,048 30	11,138 25	16,883 07	111,069 62	162,365 38
" 1816....	40,000 00	88,175 81	2,085 00	130,260 81	61,540 18	4,565 09	1,100 00	67,925 87	84,575 72
" 1817....	40,000 00	26,830 35	5 25	60,535 65	94,391 60	3,669 22	98,060 82	23,166 38
" 1818....	8,300 00	164,676 86	577 60	173,554 46	90,663 95	3,822 62	4,145 79	97,286 05	157,286 05
" 1819....	8,200 00	42,217 78	2,120 80	52,538 67	126,789 17	4,733 42	131,522 55	39,605 25
" 1820....	9,400 00	54,246 56	1,05 97	63,752 53	128,437 10	5,780 19	230 00	134,447 29	48,342 34
" 1821....	8,950 00	15,191 30	24,141 30	122,858 81	5,884 98	128,743 79	9,306 32
" 1822....	38,950 00	23,734 05	173 72	62,857 77	134,536 48	9,251 05	337 00	144,114 53	14,319 72
" 1823....	74,973 63	16,548 28	10 00	91,531 91	111,398 79	9,139 38	4,777 13	125,315 30	2,641 77
" 1824....	70,100 00	12,470 37	82,570 37	126,265 61	6,888 78	12,446 60	145,603 99
" 1825....	210,500 00	11,179 72	3,411 06	925,090 78	141,507 02	11,759 65	4,514 55	157,781 22
" 1826....	160,300 00	19,421 95	1,362 44	181,704 39	127,724 97	13,597 45	19,271 00	160,593 42
" 1827....	160,900 00	9,431 83	157 45	170,489 28	139,619 37	20,469 08	4,523 99	164,612 44
" 1828....	160,900 00	11,907 65	1,339 41	174,147 06	173,373 74	15,865 07	2,473 31	191,712 32
" 1829....	161,000 00	7,009 91	2,704 32	130,804 23	157,615 54	22,023 30	5,429 88	185,008 72
" 1830....	161,300 00	13,794 07	257 86	175,351 93	176,780 89	20,060 62	47,404 36	244,245 87
" 1831....	201,300 00	16,937 63	4,995 37	923,233 00	232,054 14	9,353 89	84 75	241,532 78	12,494 36
" 1832....	201,300 00	41,998 89	8,242 10	351,540 99	180,501 69	15,638 14	196,139 83	34,602 85
" 1833....	227,700 00	17,472 32	2,889 84	258,062 16	238,509 81	63,203 50	5,191 00	306,904 31	48,032 34
" 1834....	272,700 00	11,127 27	2,454 00	286,281 27	276,404 28	24,509 66	5,809 76	306,723 70	16,738 15
" 1835....	315,875 00	8,868 55	2,156 76	326,900 31	310,389 61	18,351 60	3,332 33	332,073 44	10,658 52
" 1836....	257,900 00	4,963 34	3,390 05	366,253 39	256,432 50	17,575 56	9,153 72	283,152 78	18,375 80
" 1837....	323,250 00	7,192 76	443 56	350,886 32	296,932 60	27,715 97	324,648 57	20,070 65
" 1838....	363,250 00	16,489 61	1,366 14	381,105 75	364,356 58	36,053 54	3,321 15	303,731 27
" 1839....	142,842 00	81,865 75	2,976 18	227,983 93	378,346 85	34,919 11	3,000 00	393,087 05	17,971 45
" 1840....	314,450 00	14,630 90	5,316 76	334,397 66	355,707 94	34,919 07	2,347 50	419,344 23	10,785 54
" 1841....	339,450 00	10,254 96	6,681 41	356,386 37	391,622 32	25,374 41	1,277 01	483,097 87	5,163 15
" 1842....	390,216 00	12,655 37	1,592 44	404,673 92	463,476 91	18,343 95	237,977 86	22,671 80
" 1843....	245,852 00	25,132 37	288 99	271,273 36	235,228 30	2,749 56	454,573 10	53,705 50
" 1844....	389,050 00	45,274 37	18,543 85	452,808 22	444,400 38	9,999 13	113 59	530,580 78	17,807 44
" 1845....	415,200 00	46,161 90	145 54	461,507 44	502,080 78	28,500 00	477,206 41	2,074 10
" 1846....	415,200 00	30,400 67	2,049 13	447,739 80	446,740 71	30,465 70	489,662 89	3,355 16
" 1847....	452,200 00	26,563 76	3,013 60	481,777 36	463,440 69	10,304 24	15,827 96	488,349 58	18,148 98
" 1848....	448,600 00	3,381 33	486,664 79	468,433 77	15,781 23	4,134 58
" 1849....	457,000 00

June 30,

ESTIMATE OF THE PRODUCTION OF GOLD.

It is impossible to state with accuracy the amount of gold produced by the California mines. Some idea of the quantity received in the Eastern States, may be formed from an examination of the coinage. We insert the following statements:

UNITED STATES MINT AND BRANCHES.—Total coinage for 1851, and sources whence gold was received for four years.

Coinage in 1851.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia,	\$52,143,446	\$446,797	*\$52,689,878
New Orleans,	9,795,000	327,600	10,122,600
Charlotte,	324,454	—	324,454
Dahlongo,	351,592	—	351,592
	<u>\$62,614,492</u>	<u>\$774,397</u>	<u>\$63,488,524</u>

Whence gold received.

	California.	Other sources.	Total.
1848	\$45,301	\$851,374	\$896,675
1849	6,151,360	927,784	7,079,144
1850	36,273,097	665,217	36,938,314
1851	55,938,232	602,380	56,540,612
Total,	<u>\$98,407,990</u>	<u>\$3,046,755</u>	<u>\$101,454,745</u>

Whole number of pieces coined, 28,701,958. The expense of coinage at Philadelphia is, 42–100 per cent.; at New Orleans, 1 and 8–100 per cent.; at Charlotte, 3 and 55–100 per cent.; and at Dahlongo, 3 and 13–100 per cent.

From a gentleman who visited several of the Mexican mines, and acquired information from the most reliable sources, we learn that these produced about \$29,000,000 in 1850; and the yield for 1851 was about the same amount, mostly silver. The most productive mines of Mexico are those of Guanaxuato, which produce as much as all the rest put together; and next to them, though much less valuable, are those of Zacatecas.

The "*N. Y. Courier*" estimates the whole amount of gold and silver produced by America (North and South), up to July, 1851, at about 6,418 millions of dollars, of which more than four-fifths have been produced by Mexico and Peru.

* Including \$99,635 in copper.

IMPORTATIONS OF PRECIOUS METALS INTO ENGLAND FOR 1850.

THE returns of the importation of specie and bullion into the port of Southampton, for the half-year ending 31st December, 1850, exhibit a decrease upon those of the preceding six months; and the total returns of imports for the year 1850, exhibit a falling off, when contrasted with those of 1849. In the present position of the foreign exchanges, and the action of the Bank of England thereon, by increasing the rate of discount from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent., these returns are of some interest, as Southampton is the port of destination for the great bulk of gold and silver produced by the mines of Mexico, the South Pacific, and California. The value of gold and silver brought to Southampton by the Royal (West India) Mail Company's steamers, during the past half-year, amounts to \$12,982,273, equal to £2,596,455 sterling; for the half-year ending June 30, the amount was \$11,814,275, or £2,362,855 sterling, making a total for the year, of \$24,982,273, or £4,959,319. The total amount received by the West India Mail Packets in the year 1849, was \$23,241,360, equal to £4,648,270 sterling, thus showing an increase of receipts by these conveyances of only \$1,555,188, or £311,037 sterling. This increase is a very small one, and has by no means answered the expectations indulged in some time since, from the increased yield of the Californian mines, and of the silver-producing States of the Pacific and Mexico, and from the establishment of a more direct line of steam communication between the Isthmus of Panama and Southampton. The importations of specie and bullion during the six months ending 30th Dec., 1849, were \$12,670,705, or £2,534,141. These, when contrasted with the corresponding period of 1850, show an increase in favor of the latter, of no more than \$311,568, equal to £62,314 sterling. An analysis of the \$12,982,273 received during the past six months will probably be of importance, as indicating the rate of produce of the precious metals for transmission to Europe, by the various countries in the Western World. The receipts are as follows:

	<i>Value.</i>
From the Pacific ports south of Panama, including, say, Chili, Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, and New Granada (principally silver) . . .	\$4,082,967 or £1,016,594
From California (gold)	2,911,705 or 582,341
From the Gulf of Mexico, say, from Tampico and Vera Cruz (silver)	3,227,120 or 645,424
From the Gulf of Mexico, for account of the Committee of Mexican Bondholders (silver)	263,604 or 52,721

From the ports of Carthagen and Santa Martha (silver and gold)	<i>Value.</i> \$1,274,699 or £254,939
From the British French, and Danish West Indies—including Havana, Honduras, and Demerara (silver and gold)	290,268 or 58,054

The amount first given in the above list of receipts from the South Pacific ports, say, \$5,082,967, may be looked upon as a close approximation to the total half-yearly produce of the silver mines of Chili, Peru, Bolivia, &c., as but little specie thence now finds its way to Europe by way of Cape Horn.

While the total returns of receipts of the precious metals from Spanish America, California, and the West Indies, shows so trivial an improvement, contrasted with the previous expectations, the list of receipts of bullion from all parts of the world, say, from India, China, Egypt, Turkey, the Mediterranean, Portugal, &c., shows a great falling off when compared with the year 1849, thus proving that in most of those quarters the balance of trade is against Great Britain, and that specie is now being drawn from, instead of being sent to that country. The Peninsular and Oriental Company's line of Alexandrian mail packets has brought specie to Southampton during the six months past, value only £16,000; to this if we add £56,732, as the amount brought for the six months ending June 30, there is a total of only £72,732, against £728,851 sterling, received by the same conveyances in 1849, showing an immense falling off, amounting to £656,119 sterling. The bulk of the receipts composing the £728,851, in 1849, consisted of large remittances from India, on account of the East India Company. The tide is now turned the other way, for we find that the exports from Southampton by the Alexandrian packets to China, India, Egypt, &c., have reached £778,500 during the past half-year, and the total emission during the year can be estimated at little short of £1,000,000 sterling.

A similar decrease is found when looking at the returns of specie brought by the steamers from Constantinople and the Turkish ports. During the past six months £100,700 has been received thence, (showing a falling off of £292,810, when compared with the corresponding period of 1849,) and £370,533 during the first half-year of 1850, making a total for the whole year of £471,233, against the total in 1849, of £933,510—a decrease of no less than £462,377. The falling off in this case may, to some extent, be attributed to the competition of the screw steamers now running between Liverpool, London, and Turkey, many small amounts of specie being transmitted by those vessels, which tend to lessen the total which would be otherwise brought by the Peninsular and Oriental steamers.

The imports of specie by the Peninsular line of packets from Gibraltar, Lisbon, Oporto, &c., cannot be so accurately arrived at as the foregoing. They are estimated at about £70,000 for the half-year, and at about £200,000 for the whole year—a falling off of £110,000 when compared with 1849.

The aggregate importations of silver, gold, gold-dust, &c., into Southampton, for the year 1850, as derived from the above returns, are, therefore, as nearly as possible as follows:

By the royal mail steamers from California, the Pacific, Gulf of Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies	<i>Value.</i> \$24,982,373 or £4,959,319
By the Peninsular steamers from Alexandria, &c.	363,660 or 72,732
By the Peninsular steamers from Constantinople, &c.	2,356,165 or 471,165
By the Peninsular steamers from Gibraltar, Portugal, &c.	1,000,000 or 200,000
Total	\$28,702,098 £5,703,216

The grand total of importations in 1849, reached the enormous sum of \$33,943,275, or £6,788,655 sterling, thus showing, when contrasted with the above, that the receipts in 1850 have declined to no less an extent than \$5,241,177, or £1,085,439 sterling.

While the receipts have so largely declined, the exports have undergone very considerable augmentation. They are estimated as follows, for the year:

To India, Egypt, and the Mediterranean	<i>Value.</i> \$5,000,000 or £1,000,000
To the West Indies, &c.	1,235,000 or 265,000
To Spain, Portugal, and Gibraltar	1,500,000 or 300,000
Total	\$7,735,000 or £1,565,000

A STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF THE UNITED STATES,

	CUSTOMS.	Internal Revenue.	Direct Taxes.	Postage.
From March 4, 1789.				
to Dec. 31,				
For year				
1791	\$4,399,473 09
1792	3,443,070 85	\$208,942 81
1793	4,255,306 56	337,705 70	\$11,020 51
1794	4,801,065 28	274,089 62	29,478 49
1795	5,588,461 26	337,755 36	22,400 00
1796	6,567,987 94	475,289 60	72,909 84
1797	7,549,649 65	575,491 45	64,500 00
1798	7,106,061 93	644,357 95	39,500 00
1799	6,610,449 31	779,136 44	41,000 00
1800	9,080,932 73	809,396 55	\$734,223 97	78,000 00
1801	10,750,778 93	1,048,033 43	534,343 38	79,500 00
1802	12,438,235 74	621,898 89	206,565 44	35,000 00
1803	10,479,417 61	215,179 69	71,879 20	16,427 26
1804	11,098,565 33	50,941 29	50,198 44	26,500 00
1805	12,936,487 04	21,747 15	21,882 91	21,342 50
1806	14,667,698 17	20,101 45	55,763 86	41,117 67
1807	15,845,521 61	13,051 40	34,732 56	3,614 73
1808	16,363,550 58	8,210 73	19,159 21
1809	7,296,020 58	4,044 39	7,517 31
1810	8,583,309 31	7,430 63	12,448 68
1811	13,313,222 73	2,295 95	7,666 66	37 70
1812	8,958,777 53	4,903 06	859 22	85,039 70
1813	13,224,623 25	4,755 04	3,805 52	35,000 00
1814	5,998,772 08	1,662,984 82	2,219,497 36	45,000 00
1815	7,282,942 22	4,678,059 07	2,162,673 41	135,000 10
1816	36,306,874 88	5,124,708 31	4,253,635 09	149,787 74
1817	26,283,348 49	2,678,100 77	1,834,187 04	29,371 91
1818	17,176,385 00	955,270 20	264,333 36	20,070 00
1819	20,283,608 76	229,593 63	83,650 78	71 32
1820	15,005,612 15	106,260 53	31,586 82	6,465 95
1821	13,004,447 15	69,027 63	29,349 05	516 91
1822	17,589,761 94	67,665 71	20,961 56	602 04
1823	19,088,433 44	34,242 17	10,337 71	110 69
1824	17,878,325 71	34,063 37	6,201 96
1825	20,098,713 45	25,771 35	2,330 85	469 56
1826	23,341,331 77	21,589 93	6,638 76	300 14
1827	19,712,283 29	19,885 68	2,626 90	101 00
1828	23,205,523 64	17,451 54	2,218 81	20 15
1829	22,681,965 91	14,502 74	11,335 05	86 60
1830	21,922,391 39	12,160 62	16,990 59	55 13
1831	24,224,441 77	6,933 51	10,506 01	561 02
1832	28,465,237 24	11,630 65	6,791 13	244 95
1833	29,032,508 91	2,759 00	394 12
1834	16,214,957 15	4,196 09	19 80	100 00
1835	19,391,310 59	10,459 48	4,263 33	893 00
1836	23,409,940 53	370 00	728 79	10 91
1837	11,169,290 39	5,493 84	1,687 70
1838	16,158,800 36	2,467 27
1839	23,137,924 81	2,553 32	755 22
1840	13,499,502 17	1,682 25
1841	14,487,216 74	3,261 36
1842	18,187,908 76	495 00
To June 30, 1843	7,046,843 91	103 25
1843-4	26,183,570 94	1,777 34
1844-5	27,528,112 70	3,517 12
1845-6	26,712,667 87	2,897 26
1846-7	23,747,864 66	375 00
1847-8	31,757,070 96	375 00
1848-9	28,346,738 82
1849-50	39,668,686 42
	\$990,589,983 98	\$22,278,043 39	\$12,744,737 56	\$1,092,227 52

FROM THE 4TH OF MARCH, 1798, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1850.

Public Lands.	Dividends and Sales of Bank Stock and Bonus.	Miscellaneous, including Indemnities and Chickasaw Fund.	Receipts, exclusive of Loans, Treasury Notes, &c.	Loans and Treasury Notes, &c.	Total Receipts.
.....	\$19,440 10	\$4,418,913 19	\$5,791,112 56	\$10,210,025 75
.....	\$8,028 00	9,918 65	3,669,960 31	5,070,806 46	8,740,766 77
.....	38,500 00	10,390 37	4,652,923 14	1,067,701 14	5,720,624 28
.....	303,472 00	23,799 48	5,431,904 87	4,609,196 78	10,041,101 65
.....	160,000 00	5,917 97	6,114,534 59	3,305,268 20	9,419,802 79
\$4,836 13	1,240,000 00	16,506 14	8,377,529 65	362,800 00	8,740,329 65
83,540 60	385,220 00	30,379 29	8,688,780 99	70,135 41	8,758,916 40
11,963 11	79,920 00	18,692 81	7,900,495 80	308,574 27	8,209,070 07
.....	71,040 00	45,187 56	7,546,813 31	5,074,646 53	12,621,459 84
443 75	71,040 00	74,712 10	10,848,749 10	1,602,435 04	12,451,184 14
167,726 06	88,800 00	266,149 15	12,935,330 95	10,125 00	12,945,455 95
188,628 02	1,327,560 00	177,905 86	14,895,793 95	5,597 36	15,001,391 31
165,675 69	115,518 18	11,064,097 63	11,064,097 63
487,526 79	112,575 53	11,826,307 38	9,532 64	11,835,840 02
540,193 80	19,039 80	13,560,693 20	128,814 94	13,689,508 14
765,245 73	10,004 19	15,559,931 07	48,897 71	15,608,828 78
466,163 27	34,935 69	16,398,019 26	16,398,019 26
647,939 06	21,802 35	17,060,661 93	1,882 16	17,062,544 09
442,252 33	23,638 51	7,773,473 12	7,773,473 12
696,548 82	84,476 84	9,384,214 28	2,759,992 25	12,144,206 53
1,040,237 53	60,068 52	14,423,529 09	8,309 05	14,431,838 14
710,427 78	41,125 47	9,801,132 76	12,837,900 00	22,639,032 76
835,655 14	236,571 00	14,340,409 95	26,184,435 00	40,524,844 95
1,135,971 09	119,399, 81	11,181,625 16	23,377,911 79	34,559,536 95
1,287,959 28	150,282 74	15,696,916 82	35,264,320 78	50,961,237 60
1,717,985 03	123,994 61	47,676,985 66	9,494,436 16	57,171,421 82
1,991,226 06	202,426 30	80,389 17	33,099,049 74	734,542 59	33,833,592 33
2,606,564 77	525,000 00	37,547 71	21,585,171 04	8,765 62	21,593,936 66
3,274,422 78	675,000 00	57,027 10	24,603,374 37	2,291 00	24,605,665 37
1,635,871 61	1,000,000 00	54,872 49	17,840,669 55	3,040,824 13	20,881,493 68
1,212,966 46	105,000 00	152,072 52	14,573,379 72	5,000,324 00	19,573,703 72
1,803,581 54	297,500 00	452,355 15	20,232,427 94	20,232,427 94
916,523 10	350,000 00	141,019 15	20,540,666 26	20,540,666 26
984,418 15	350,000 00	127,603 60	19,381,212 79	5,000,000 00	24,381,212 79
1,216,090 56	367,500 00	129,982 25	21,840,858 02	5,000,000 00	26,840,858 02
1,393,785 09	402,500 00	94,288 52	25,260,434 21	25,260,434 21
1,495,845 26	420,000 00	1,315,621 83	22,966,363 96	22,966,363 96
1,018,308 75	455,000 00	65,106 34	24,763,629 23	24,763,629 23
1,517,175 13	490,000 00	112,561 95	24,827,627 38	24,827,627 38
2,329,356 14	490,000 00	73,172 64	24,844,116 51	24,844,116 51
3,210,815 48	490,000 00	583,563 03	28,526,820 82	28,526,820 82
2,623,381 03	659,000 00	99,276 16	31,865,561 16	31,865,561 16
3,967,682 55	610,285 00	334,796 67	33,948,426 25	33,948,426 25
4,857,600 69	586,649 50	128,412 32	21,791,935 55	21,791,935 55
14,757,600 75	569,280 82	696,279 13	35,430,087 10	35,430,087 10
24,877,179 86	328,674 67	2,209,891 32	50,826,796 08	50,826,796 08
6,776,236 52	1,375,965 44	5,562,190 80	24,890,864 69	2,992,989 15	27,883,853 84
3,081,939 47	4,542,102 22	2,517,252 42	26,302,561 74	12,716,820 86	39,019,382 60
7,076,447 35	1,265,068 91	30,023,966 68	3,857,276 21	33,881,242 89
3,292,285 58	1,774,513 80	874,662 28	19,442,646 08	5,589,547 51	25,032,193 59
1,365,627 42	672,769 38	331,285 37	16,860,160 27	13,659,317 38	30,519,477 65
1,335,797 52	56,912 53	383,895 44	19,965,009 25	14,808,735 64	34,773,744 89
897,818 11	286,235 99	8,231,001 26	12,551,409 19	20,782,410 45
2,059,939 80	1,075,419 70	29,320,707 78	1,877,847 95	31,198,555 73
2,077,022 30	5,000 00	328,201 78	29,941,853 90	29,941,853 90
2,694,452 48	289,950 13	29,699,967 74	29,699,967 74
2,498,355 20	4,430 39	186,467 91	26,437,403 16	28,900,765 36	55,338,168 52
3,328,642 56	34,834 70	577,775 99	35,698,699 21	21,293,780 00	56,992,479 21
1,688,959 55	8,955 00	676,424 13	30,721,077 50	29,075,815 48	59,796,892 98
1,859,894 25	2,064,308 21	43,592,888 88	4,056,500 00	47,649,388 88
\$129,120,732 88	\$21,622,789 75	\$25,217,410 83	\$1,201,207,142 98	\$307,562,383 30	\$1,508,769,526 28

A STATEMENT OF THE EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES, BALANCES OF MONEY IN THE TREASURY

	Civil List.	Foreign inter- course, includ- ing awards.	Miscel- laneous.	MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT.	
				Military Service, exclusive of Pensions and Indian Depart.	Revolutionary and other Pensions.
From March 4, 1789, to Dec. 31,					
1791	\$757,134 45	\$14,733 33	\$311,533 83	\$632,804 03	\$175,813 88
1792	380,917 58	78,766 67	194,572 32	1,100,702 09	109,243 15
1793	358,241 08	89,500 00	24,709 46	1,130,249 08	80,087 81
1794	440,946 58	146,403 51	118,248 30	2,639,097 59	81,399 24
1795	361,633 36	912,685 12	92,718 50	2,480,910 13	68,673 22
1796	447,139 05	184,859 64	150,476 14	1,260,263 84	100,843 71
1797	483,233 70	669,788 54	103,880 82	1,039,402 66	92,256 97
1798	504,605 17	457,428 74	149,004 15	2,009,322 30	104,845 33
1799	592,905 76	271,374 11	175,111 81	2,466,946 98	95,444 03
1800	748,688 45	395,288 18	193,636 59	2,560,878 77	64,130 73
1801	549,288 31	295,676 73	269,803 41	1,672,944 08	73,533 37
1802	596,981 11	550,925 93	315,022 36	1,179,148 25	85,440 39
1803	526,583 12	1,110,834 77	205,217 87	822,055 85	62,002 10
1804	624,795 63	1,186,655 57	379,558 23	875,423 93	80,092 80
1805	585,849 79	2,798,028 77	384,720 19	712,781 28	81,854 59
1806	684,230 53	1,760,421 30	445,485 18	1,224,355 38	81,675 53
1807	655,524 65	577,826 34	464,546 52	1,288,685 91	70,500 00
1808	691,167 80	304,992 83	427,124 98	2,900,834 40	82,576 04
1809	712,465 13	166,306 04	337,032 62	3,345,772 17	87,833 54
1810	703,994 03	81,367 48	315,783 47	2,294,323 94	83,744 16
1811	644,467 27	264,904 47	457,919 66	2,032,828 19	75,043 88
1812	826,271 55	347,703 29	509,113 37	11,817,798 24	91,402 10
1813	780,545 45	209,941 01	738,949 15	19,652,013 02	86,989 91
1814	927,424 23	177,179 97	1,103,425 50	20,350,806 86	90,164 36
1815	852,247 16	290,892 04	1,755,731 27	14,794,294 22	69,656 06
1816	1,208,125 77	364,620 40	1,416,995 00	16,012,096 80	188,804 15
1817	994,556 17	281,935 97	2,242,384 62	8,004,236 53	297,374 43
1818	1,109,559 79	420,429 90	2,305,849 82	5,622,715 10	890,719 90
1819	1,142,180 41	284,113 94	1,640,917 06	6,506,300 37	2,415,939 85
1820	1,248,310 05	253,370 04	1,090,341 85	2,630,392 31	3,208,376 31
1821	1,112,292 64	207,110 75	903,718 15	4,461,291 78	242,817 25
1822	1,158,131 58	164,879 51	644,985 15	3,111,981 48	1,948,199 40
1823	1,058,911 65	292,118 56	671,063 78	3,096,924 43	1,780,588 52
1824	1,336,266 24	5,140,099 83	678,942 74	3,340,939 85	1,499,326 59
1825	1,330,747 24	371,666 25	1,046,131 40	3,659,914 18	1,308,810 57
1826	1,256,745 48	232,719 08	1,110,713 23	3,943,194 37	1,556,593 83
1827	1,228,141 04	659,211 87	826,123 67	3,938,977 88	976,138 86
1828	1,455,490 58	1,001,193 66	1,219,368 40	4,145,544 56	850,573 57
1829	1,327,069 36	207,765 85	1,566,679 66	4,724,291 07	949,594 47
1830	1,579,724 64	294,067 27	1,363,624 13	4,767,128 88	1,363,297 31
1831	1,373,755 99	298,554 00	1,392,336 11	4,841,835 55	1,170,665 14
1832	1,800,757 74	325,181 07	2,451,202 64	5,446,034 88	1,184,422 40
1833	1,562,758 28	955,395 88	3,198,091 77	6,703,019 10	4,589,152 40
1834	2,080,601 60	241,562 35	2,082,565 00	5,696,189 38	3,364,285 30
1835	1,905,551 51	774,750 28	1,549,396 74	5,759,156 89	1,954,711 32
1836	2,110,175 47	533,382 65	2,749,721 60	12,169,226 64	2,882,797 96
1837	2,357,035 94	4,603,905 40	2,932,428 93	13,682,730 80	2,672,162 45
1838	2,688,708 56	1,215,095 52	3,256,860 68	12,897,224 16	2,156,057 29
1839	2,116,982 77	987,667 92	2,621,340 20	8,916,995 80	3,142,750 51
1840	2,736,769 31	683,278 15	2,575,351 50	7,095,267 23	2,603,562 17
1841	2,556,471 79	428,410 57	3,505,999 09	8,801,610 24	2,388,434 51
1842	2,905,041 65	563,191 41	3,307,391 55	6,610,438 02	1,378,931 33
To June 30, 1843	1,222,422 48	400,566 04	1,579,724 48	2,908,671 95	839,041 12
1843-4	2,454,958 15	636,079 66	2,554,146 05	5,218,183 66	2,032,008 99
1844-5	2,369,652 79	702,637 22	2,839,470 97	5,746,291 28	2,400,788 11
1845-6	2,532,232 92	409,292 55	3,769,758 42	10,413,370 58	1,811,097 56
1846-7	2,570,338 44	405,079 10	3,910,190 81	35,840,030 33	1,744,883 63
1847-8	2,647,802 87	448,593 01	2,554,455 37	27,687,334 21	1,228,496 48
1848-9	2,865,196 91	6,908,996 72	3,111,140 61	14,558,473 26	1,328,867 64
1849-50	3,027,454 39	5,990,858 81	7,025,450 16	9,687,024 58	1,866,886 02
	\$79,868,203 14	\$59,032,325 57	\$37,318,187 04	\$390,930,881 32	\$64,393,504 24

FROM THE 4TH MARCH, 1789, TO 30TH JUNE, 1850, AND THE AT THE END OF EACH YEAR.

Indian Department, including Chickasaw Fund.	Naval Establishments.	Expenditures, exclusive of the Public Debt.	Public Debt.	Total.	Balances in the Treasury at the end of each Year.
\$27,000 00	\$570 00	\$1,919,589 52	\$5,287,949 50	\$7,207,539 02	\$973,905 75
13,648 85	53 02	1,877,903 68	7,263,665 99	9,141,569 67	783,444 51
27,282 83	1,710,070 26	5,819,505 29	7,529,575 55	753,661 69
13,042 46	61,408 97	3,500,546 65	5,801,578 09	9,302,124 74	1,151,924 17
23,475 68	410,562 03	4,350,658 04	6,084,411 61	10,435,069 65	516,442 61
113,563 98	274,784 04	2,531,930 40	5,835,846 44	8,367,776 84	888,995 42
62,396 38	382,631 89	2,833,590 96	5,792,421 82	8,626,012 78	1,021,899 04
16,470 09	1,381,347 76	4,623,223 54	3,990,294 14	8,613,517 68	617,451 43
20,302 19	2,858,081 84	6,480,166 72	4,596,876 78	11,077,043 50	2,161,867 77
31 22	3,448,716 03	7,411,369 97	4,578,369 95	11,989,739 92	2,623,311 99
9,000 00	2,111,424 00	4,981,669 90	7,291,707 04	12,273,376 94	3,295,391 00
94,000 00	915,561 87	3,737,079 91	9,539,004 76	13,276,084 67	5,020,697 64
60,000 00	1,215,230 53	4,002,824 24	7,256,159 43	11,258,983 67	4,825,811 60
116,500 00	1,189,832 75	4,452,858 91	8,171,787 45	12,624,646 36	4,037,005 26
196,500 00	1,597,000 00	6,357,234 62	7,369,889 79	13,727,124 41	3,999,388 99
234,200 00	1,649,641 44	6,080,209 36	8,989,884 61	15,070,093 97	4,538,123 80
205,425 00	1,722,064 47	4,984,572 89	6,307,720 10	11,292,292 99	9,643,850 07
213,575 00	1,884,067 80	6,504,338 85	10,260,245 35	16,764,584 20	9,941,809 96
337,503 84	2,427,758 80	7,414,672 14	6,452,554 16	13,867,226 30	3,848,056 78
177,625 00	1,634,244 20	5,311,082 28	8,008,904 46	13,319,986 74	2,672,276 57
151,875 00	1,965,566 39	5,592,604 86	8,009,204 05	13,601,808 91	3,502,305 80
277,845 00	3,959,365 15	17,829,498 70	4,449,622 45	22,279,121 15	3,862,217 41
167,358 28	6,446,600 10	28,082,396 92	11,108,123 44	39,190,520 36	5,196,542 00
167,394 86	7,311,290 60	30,127,686 38	7,900,543 94	38,038,230 32	1,727,848 63
530,750 00	8,660,000 25	26,953,571 00	12,628,922 35	39,582,493 35	13,106,592 88
274,512 16	3,908,278 30	23,373,432 58	24,871,062 93	48,244,495 51	22,033,519 19
319,463 71	3,314,598 49	15,544,609 92	25,423,036 12	40,877,646 04	14,989,465 48
505,704 27	2,953,695 00	13,808,673 78	21,296,201 62	35,104,875 40	1,478,526 74
463,181 39	3,847,640 42	16,300,273 44	7,703,926 29	24,004,199 73	2,079,992 38
315,750 01	4,387,990 00	13,134,530 57	8,628,494 28	21,763,024 85	1,198,461 21
477,005 44	3,319,243 06	10,723,479 07	8,367,093 62	19,090,572 69	1,681,592 24
575,007 41	2,224,458 98	9,827,643 51	7,848,949 12	17,676,592 63	4,237,427 55
380,781 82	2,503,765 83	9,784,154 59	5,530,016 41	15,314,171 00	9,463,922 81
429,987 90	2,904,581 56	15,330,144 71	16,568,393 76	31,898,538 47	1,946,597 13
724,106 44	3,049,083 86	11,490,459 94	12,095,344 78	23,585,804 72	5,201,650 43
743,447 83	4,218,902 45	13,062,316 27	11,041,082 19	24,103,398 46	6,358,686 18
760,624 88	4,263,877 45	12,653,095 65	10,003,668 39	22,656,764 04	6,668,286 10
705,084 24	3,918,786 44	13,296,041 45	12,163,438 07	25,459,479 52	5,972,435 81
576,344 74	3,308,745 47	12,660,490 62	12,383,867 78	25,044,358 40	5,755,704 79
622,262 47	3,239,428 63	13,229,533 33	11,355,748 22	24,585,281 55	6,014,539 75
930,738 04	3,856,183 07	13,864,067 00	16,174,378 22	30,038,446 12	4,502,914 45
1,352,419 75	3,956,370 29	16,516,388 77	17,840,309 29	34,356,698 06	2,011,777 55
1,802,980 93	3,901,356 75	22,713,755 11	1,543,543 38	24,257,298 49	11,702,905 31
1,003,953 20	3,956,260 42	18,425,417 25	6,176,565 19	24,601,982 44	8,892,858 42
1,706,444 48	3,864,939 06	17,514,950 28	58,191 23	17,573,141 56	26,749,803 96
4,615,141 49	5,807,718 23	30,868,164 04	30,868,164 04	46,708,436 00
4,348,036 19	6,646,914 53	37,243,214 24	21,822 91	37,265,037 15	37,327,252 69
5,504,191 34	6,131,580 53	33,849,718 08	5,605,720 27	39,455,438 35	36,891,196 94
2,528,917 28	6,182,294 25	26,496,948 73	11,117,987 42	37,614,936 15	33,157,503 68
2,331,794 86	6,113,896 89	24,139,920 11	4,086,613 70	28,226,533 81	29,963,163 46
2,514,837 12	6,001,076 97	26,196,840 29	5,600,689 74	31,797,530 03	28,685,111 08
1,199,099 68	8,397,242 95	24,361,336 59	8,575,539 94	32,936,876 53	30,521,979 44
1,78,371 00	3,727,711 53	11,256,508 60	861,596 55	12,118,105 15	39,186,284 74
1,256,532 39	6,498,199 11	20,650,108 01	12,991,902 84	33,642,010 81	36,742,829 62
1,539,351 35	6,297,177 89	21,895,369 61	8,595,039 10	30,490,408 75	36,194,274 81
1,027,693 64	6,455,013 92	26,418,459 59	1,213,823 31	27,632,282 90	38,261,959 65
1,430,411 30	7,900,635 76	53,801,569 37	6,719,282 37	60,520,851 74	33,079,276 43
1,252,296 81	9,408,476 02	45,227,454 77	15,427,688 42	60,655,143 19	29,416,612 45
1,374,161 55	9,786,705 92	39,933,542 61	16,452,880 13	56,386,422 74	32,827,082 69
1,663,591 47	7,904,724 66	37,165,990 09	7,438,728 17	44,604,718 26	35,871,753 31
\$51,090,994 24	\$227,685,858 62	\$952,319,954 17	\$520,577,818 80	\$1,472,897,772 97	

STATEMENT OF THE APPROPRIATIONS MADE BY LAW, FROM SHOWING, ALSO, THE SUMS CARRIED TO THE SURPLUS

	Civil List.	Foreign intercourse, including awards.	Miscel- laneous.	MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT.		
				Mil'y Service, exclusive of Pensions and Indian Dep't.	Revolution'y and other Pensions.	Indian Dep't including Chickasaw Fund.
From March 4, 1789, to Dec. 31, For year						
1791	\$946,841 00	\$100,000 00	\$449,344 88	\$947,166 96	\$280,443 32	\$40,000 00
1792	400,458 14	90,000 00	175,324 70	1,118,527 91	87,463 60
1793	440,660 95	40,000 00	56,113 76	1,068,376 52	82,245 32	1000,00 00
1794	443,031 13	1,040,000 00	169,010 79	4,090,669 25	80,239 55	12,942 77
1795	417,362 07	40,000 00	78,861 86	1,063,121 29	85,357 04	50,000 00
1796	507,228 07	481,991 00	213,619 03	1,139,614 00	114,259 00	229,000 00
1797	540,747 91	640,905 66	147,104 39	1,440,641 20	96,350 00	19,000 00
1798	664,408 96	528,850 00	122,899 61	4,051,730 95	102,067 07	115,880 00
1799	568,190 75	496,200 00	161,466 31	3,243,649 00	93,400 00	207,500 00
1800	805,051 69	279,000 00	312,823 77	3,272,620 35	93,000 00	69,500 00
1801	692,824 05	564,364 00	238,845 13	1,963,252 20	93,000 00	83,000 00
1802	650,272 80	3,138,365 76	393,331 95	93,000 00	163,000 00
1803	537,339 64	4,139,946 82	363,579 09	1,518,000 00	93,000 00	34,500 00
1804	643,617 52	382,874 73	375,954 14	891,413 13	98,000 00	116,500 00
1805	707,335 73	2,431,963 38	590,765 10	853,719 88	98,000 00	234,400 00
1806	681,004 11	216,910 00	547,007 25	3,123,260 77	98,000 00	234,425 00
1807	653,535 24	2,188,050 00	587,326 23	1,655,154 55	98,000 00	186,325 00
1808	678,409 59	194,550 00	434,025 42	4,719,713 40	98,000 00	269,175 00
1809	699,607 98	243,050 00	408,679 09	4,037,532 18	98,000 00	232,975 00
1810	715,972 08	255,300 69	650,514 23	3,107,920 50	98,000 00	218,625 00
1811	708,565 22	228,392 67	604,825 37	3,007,315 61	98,000 00	211,950 00
1812	785,924 87	266,000 00	666,548 59	14,100,418 89	98,000 00	270,787 76
1813	954,050 73	256,900 00	1,184,617 50	16,835,392 27	98,000 00	239,225 00
1814	1,213,359 42	207,741 67	1,332,076 32	27,038,406 00	98,000 00	538,225 00
1815	1,115,595 07	247,250 00	2,104,272 21	5,403,687 41	98,000 00	273,225 00
1816	1,343,383 70	368,946 65	1,851,715 30	16,773,000 00	270,000 00	363,325 00
1817	1,107,293 80	296,333 32	1,742,314 40	8,278,445 37	200,300 00	320,175 00
1818	1,019,197 18	457,336 00	2,471,353 03	6,293,971 37	710,000 00	536,162 50
1819	1,123,643 94	328,750 00	1,540,318 25	4,790,010 43	2,415,939 85	483,490 38
1820	1,182,525 82	299,833 32	1,386,448 42	4,923,027 99	3,208,302 71	454,425 00
1821	1,007,338 86	317,500 00	570,373 44	3,061,406 81	243,324 00	526,280 44
1822	894,945 78	226,525 00	759,170 06	2,921,881 70	1,959,699 00	603,914 75
1823	1,037,660 32	136,000 00	776,207 37	3,166,671 50	1,873,815 00	377,275 00
1824	1,274,444 06	5,282,000 00	728,889 18	3,485,241 91	1,604,890 81	501,200 70
1825	1,715,012 98	329,858 37	1,103,025 61	4,098,737 19	1,268,452 26	709,752 00
1826	1,020,092 51	333,132 33	1,515,703 77	4,308,847 20	1,432,290 00	896,362 05
1827	1,254,015 55	1,468,284 00	630,428 85	3,912,066 27	1,573,240 00	668,986 99
1828	1,437,516 21	65,520 46	1,390,585 26	4,432,816 71	396,095 00	817,887 07
1829	1,392,423 07	195,811 33	2,133,538 39	4,540,693 74	890,497 00	695,692 96
1830	1,558,445 59	269,748 49	1,436,201 06	5,082,843 98	1,280,742 06	1,032,490 15
1831	1,434,263 89	302,186 34	1,456,449 43	4,683,154 91	1,304,494 05	911,489 48
1832	1,758,279 69	338,381 89	2,946,392 70	6,065,584 90	1,517,257 84	1,306,281 27
1833	1,596,585 49	1,003,366 60	3,196,771 48	6,621,649 02	4,237,674 76	2,171,863 29
1834	2,116,670 76	291,128 98	2,206,215 30	6,861,622 02	3,561,463 00	1,353,519 06
1835	1,885,665 74	782,310 21	1,547,315 18	4,948,297 25	2,126,267 87	2,058,923 98
1836	2,303,977 76	473,939 48	3,085,691 65	14,613,053 24	2,396,637 90	9,709,357 54
1837	2,562,002 24	4,861,023 37	4,600,680 46	13,665,447 43	3,096,081 71	3,501,405 94
1838	3,072,877 85	1,106,272 70	2,635,269 55	15,686,618 17	2,682,440 88	5,042,112 58
1839	1,506,039 58	990,576 95	2,218,428 70	8,682,006 19	3,499,268 42	2,161,360 26
1840	2,951,033 89	658,849 74	3,243,649 40	6,504,830 67	1,934,557 37	1,309,523 80
1841	2,678,724 32	455,624 47	2,901,543 49	9,406,829 61	1,968,024 25	1,139,094 77
1842	2,872,226 87	524,390 82	3,550,369 61	7,052,915 90	1,416,707 95	1,446,929 69
To June 30, 1843	890,544 67	387,635 28	1,442,839 05	1,243,980 12	946,781 80	1,312,125 14
1843-4	2,519,544 65	999,699 85	2,750,018 46	6,104,619 94	1,723,941 88	1,012,058 84
1844-5	2,360,172 69	371,646 78	2,763,433 05	4,308,396 61	2,349,561 52	1,353,538 73
1845-6	2,540,525 86	530,950 96	4,111,606 03	13,619,633 81	2,143,228 64	1,219,680 98
1846-7	2,560,430 39	407,145 60	3,637,527 02	36,009,026 87	2,062,038 77	1,785,070 06
1847-8	2,773,144 53	442,438 74	2,794,052 35	32,729,008 34	1,546,384 31	1,177,816 08
1848-9	2,757,475 79	9,237,901 39	3,595,853 12	12,731,610 54	874,963 30	1,330,007 41
1849-50	3,295,350 82	4,160,729 00	7,113,970 04	6,839,919 56	1,873,087 62	1,810,942 15
	81,974,871 57	57,400,183 84	94,223,285 18	408,139,171 49	64,977,296 43	56,190,681 57

THE 4TH OF MARCH, 1789, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1850;
FUND, AND THE BALANCES OF APPROPRIATIONS.

Naval Estab- lishments.	Appropriations, exclusive of Public Debt.	Public Debt.	Total.	Am't carried to Surplus Fund.	Balances of Appropriations.
\$33,327 50	\$2,797,123 66	\$6,194,476 49	\$8,991,600 15	\$1,784,061 13
2,000 00	1,873,774 35	7,372,871 89	9,246,646 24	1,889,137 70
.....	1,787,396 55	7,489,427 18	9,276,823 73	3,636,365 88
768,888 82	6,604,782 31	7,427,903 92	14,032,686 23	\$415,761 74	7,951,185 63
.....	1,734,702 26	7,521,159 45	9,255,861 71	99,359 03	6,672,618 66
5,000 00	2,690,711 10	5,123,241 35	7,813,952 45	17,417 90	6,101,376 37
487,000 00	3,371,749 16	4,669,686 59	8,041,435 75	62,237 25	5,454,562 09
2,024,712 00	7,610,348 59	4,366,499 45	11,976,848 04	183,120 37	8,634,772 08
3,823,789 89	8,594,195 95	4,632,265 94	13,226,461 89	57,044 38	10,727,146 09
2,482,953 49	7,314,949 30	4,639,672 56	11,954,621 86	2,249,190 77	8,442,837 26
3,042,352 95	6,677,638 33	6,794,519 48	13,472,157 81	395,141 01	9,246,477 12
242,294 00	4,680,264 51	7,378,627 48	12,058,891 99	59,450 12	7,969,834 32
1,144,797 46	7,831,163 01	5,854,957 11	13,686,120 12	1,446,149 23	8,950,821 54
1,667,498 45	4,175,857 97	8,122,989 77	12,298,847 74	268,810 89	8,356,212 03
1,550,000 00	6,466,184 09	7,369,889 79	13,836,073 88	3,606,428 00	4,858,733 50
1,692,141 44	6,592,748 57	8,989,884 61	15,582,633 18	674,032 14	4,697,240 57
2,429,564 47	7,797,955 49	8,021,319 86	15,819,275 35	113,422 68	9,110,800 25
1,131,567 80	7,525,441 21	8,546,645 59	16,072,086 80	3,909,531 86	4,507,760 99
2,916,902 50	8,636,746 75	6,452,554 16	15,089,300 91	706,841 74	5,024,003 86
1,664,640 69	6,710,973 19	8,008,904 46	14,719,877 65	1,187,795 16	5,236,099 61
1,870,274 05	6,729,322 92	8,009,204 05	14,738,526 97	268,709 47	6,104,108 20
4,304,669 60	20,492,349 71	8,000,000 00	28,492,349 71	570,886 96	11,746,467 80
9,051,788 55	29,078,974 05	8,000,000 00	37,078,974 05	259,176 57	9,375,744 92
8,174,910 87	38,602,719 28	8,000,000 00	46,602,719 28	592,309 99	17,357,923 89
5,258,686 25	14,500,715 94	16,767,593 60	31,268,309 54	393,050 98	8,650,689 10
4,234,793 77	25,145,164 42	24,760,055 93	49,905,220 35	639,133 99	9,672,279 95
3,141,598 49	15,759,660 38	20,853,661 70	36,613,122 08	372,066 58	5,035,689 41
3,508,695 00	14,996,715 08	21,296,306 04	36,293,021 12	382,514 55	5,841,320 58
3,427,306 95	14,109,459 80	10,000,000 00	24,109,459 80	133,352 02	5,813,228 63
4,042,990 00	15,497,553 26	10,000,000 00	25,497,553 26	137,571 78	9,410,185 26
2,709,243 06	8,435,466 61	10,000,000 00	18,435,466 61	747,308 96	8,007,770 22
3,141,881 52	10,508,017 81	10,000,000 00	20,508,017 81	641,285 65	10,197,909 75
2,622,484 62	10,190,113 81	10,000,000 00	20,190,113 81	150,720 11	14,923,132 45
2,953,969 29	15,830,635 95	10,000,000 00	25,830,635 95	273,363 64	8,581,866 29
3,667,706 31	12,892,544 72	10,000,000 00	22,892,544 72	277,802 61	7,610,803 68
3,748,985 23	13,255,413 09	10,000,000 00	23,255,413 09	251,830 89	6,510,987 42
3,709,629 20	13,216,650 86	10,000,000 00	23,216,650 86	220,181 73	6,850,692 51
4,101,987 90	12,642,408 61	10,000,000 00	22,642,408 61	296,088 47	3,737,533 13
3,723,475 40	13,491,131 89	12,334,170 27	25,825,302 16	193,235 97	4,325,240 92
4,316,000 47	14,976,471 80	11,355,748 22	26,332,220 02	621,845 21	5,450,334 18
3,496,643 29	13,588,681 39	16,174,378 22	29,763,059 61	179,535 36	4,995,412 31
4,465,573 53	18,397,751 82	18,078,938 85	36,476,690 67	137,000 31	6,978,404 61
3,867,872 01	22,695,782 65	10,000,000 00	32,695,782 65	172,073 42	15,244,815 35
4,578,373 37	20,968,992 49	20,968,992 49	449,359 56	11,162,465 84
4,998,234 13	18,347,014 36	18,347,014 36	482,983 40	11,453,355 24
6,789,167 96	39,371,825 53	96,019 09	39,467,844 62	550,016 44	19,503,019 38
7,470,057 60	39,756,698 75	39,756,698 75	313,407 51	21,681,273 47
5,076,336 26	35,301,927 99	5,603,503 10	40,905,431 18	2,759,022 17	20,372,244 13
5,890,430 96	24,948,111 06	11,129,940 07	36,078,051 13	958,653 79	17,876,705 32
6,001,679 40	22,404,124 27	4,045,802 05	26,449,926 32	2,973,977 78	13,126,120 05
7,562,752 70	26,112,593 61	5,698,360 74	31,810,954 35	839,208 60	12,300,335 97
6,741,683 21	23,605,224 05	8,477,868 94	32,083,092 99	74,433 69	11,372,118 54
3,672,300 97	9,896,207 03	861,607 47	10,757,814 50	10,011,827 89
6,079,456 51	21,189,340 13	13,040,152 83	34,229,492 96	443,945 35	10,155,364 65
6,051,700 98	19,558,450 36	8,588,157 62	28,146,607 98	274,570 38	7,536,993 54
9,091,388 40	33,257,013 72	1,217,823 31	34,474,837 03	735,761 02	13,643,786 65
7,711,773 64	54,193,012 35	6,715,282 37	60,908,294 72	702,618 67	13,328,778 96
9,295,054 34	50,757,989 69	15,429,197 21	66,187,095 90	185,024 99	18,675,538 68
9,845,249 07	40,373,080 62	16,453,272 39	56,826,353 01	1,381,201 63	17,734,267 32
9,701,345 22	34,695,344 41	7,437,366 41	42,132,710 82	330,541 55	14,931,718 33
238,339,581 54	1,001,245,071 62	523,401,907 70	1,524,646,979 32	36,817,488 02	

Summary of the three preceding Statements.

The total amount of receipts into the Treasury from the 4th March, 1789, to 30th of June, 1850, was	\$1,508,769,526 28
The total expenditure for the same period was	\$1,472,897,772 97
The balance in the Treasury on the 30th June, 1850, was	<u>35,871,753 31</u>
	<u>\$1,508,769,526 28</u>
The total amount of appropriations from 4th March, 1789, to 30th June, 1850, was	\$1,524,646,979 32
The total expenditure for the same period was	1,472,897,772 97
The total amount carried to the surplus fund during the same period was	36,817,488 02
The balances of appropriations on the 30th of June, 1850, was	<u>14,931,718 33</u>
	<u>\$1,524,646,979 32</u>

Statement of Receipts and Expenditure for the Year ending June 30, 1851.

Receipts from Customs	\$49,942,032 00
Public lands	<u>2,370,947 00</u>
	<u>\$52,312,979 00</u>
Expenditures—Civil list	\$29,901,013 00
	9,060,268 00
	<u>9,044,597 00</u>
	<u>\$48,005,878 00</u>

MEXICAN MINES.*(Communicated to the Register.)*

* * We have received the following interesting article from a gentleman who has been engaged in the silver mines of Mexico for a period of over a quarter of a century, and is now at the head of the mining company of Pachuca and Real del Monte.

Notes for estimating, as far as relates to the Republic of Mexico, the probable increase in the produce of the precious metals, and in the consumption of Quicksilver, by the event of the latter metal being considerably diminished in value.

There can be no doubt that a great reduction in the value of quicksilver will in some degree contribute to augment the produce of silver; but not, I think, to that extent which many suppose; and my reason for coming to this conclusion is, that there are other circumstances which in this country bear with far more influence on the working of silver mines, than the cost of this ingredient.

It may be safely assumed, that no known mine with a remunerative content of silver in its ores, is at present idle from the great high price of quicksilver; and we must, therefore, only look for an increased produce of this metal (silver) from mines whose ores, although abundant, are too poor to pay the cost of reduction.

With ores of this class, which in Mexico are always reduced by amalgamation, quicksilver is not so important an agent as with those that are rich: for while the cost of grinding and other manipulations, salt and other ingredients, vary but little in the reduction of rich or poor ores, the expenditure of quicksilver being in proportion to the silver yielded, of course diminishes with the decreased value of the ore.

The total cost, as well as the relative proportions of that cost, for extracting silver from its ores by amalgamation, varies very much in the several parts of this Republic, and in different years. For the ore, rich or poor, must be ground to a fine powder or paste; and as the great bulk of silver produced in this country is obtained from districts in which animal power is alone employed in the necessary grinding machinery, it follows that the price of maize—its principal forage—must form a chief feature, and in fact a more prominent one than even quicksilver, in the reduction of its ores.

To take something like a mean, I may estimate the cost of reducing silver ores with maize at \$2 per "fanega," or \$22 per "monton" of 30 quintals, and divide it as follows:

Forage. Maize \$3½, straw \$2	\$5 50
Salt	3 50
Other materials, such as sulphate of copper, iron, steel, fuel, timber, mill-stones, &c., &c.	5 50
Management of labor	7 50
Total	\$22 00

This cost, which does not include quicksilver, is technically termed "Maquila," and as I have before said, varies comparatively little with rich or poor ores; but to it must be added the value of quicksilver expended, which increases in proportion to the richness of the ore reduced.

Thus, with a good remunerative ore, containing 12 marks of silver per "monton" of 30 quintals, the cost of reducing that quantity would be, for "Maquila"	\$22 00
Loss of quicksilver, at the rate of $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pound per mark of silver—equal on 12 marks to 9 lbs.—at \$100 per quintal	9 00
Making total cost of reducing a "monton" of such ore	\$31 00

While with a poor ore of 5 marks per "monton," which would require rather less materials, we must calculate thus:

Maquila	\$20 00
Quicksilver, in same proportion as above on 5 marks	3 75
Making total cost of reducing a poor ore	<u>\$23 75</u>

In the first case quicksilver is an item of considerable interest, but in the second so comparatively trivial, that if its value were reduced by one-half, it would not effect a saving of more than \$2 per "monton." Maize, on the contrary, plays a more important part; for even taken at its mean price, it amounts, as I have shown, to \$3½ per "monton," subject in good seasons to go down to \$2, and in unfavorable years to ascend to \$7, and even more; besides, the variation in straw, which, although not to such extremes, in some degree accompanies the maize in its fluctuations.

But besides the cost of extracting the silver from its ores, we must also take into consideration the cost of extracting those ores from their deposits in veins; and this varies in different districts and mines even more than the cost of reduction. Thus in some cases, the ore being rich but scarce, much cost is incurred in manual labor for blasting and extracting it from the vein; while in others, the ores, although poor, are yet abundant, but the mines containing much water, the cost of drainage by horse power may be very considerable, and fluctuating with the price of maize.

Taking the case of a mine very abundant in poor ores—say, containing 5 marks per "monton," being 27 ounces per ton, or 1¼ per cent. of silver, and not troubled with water; which would be the class of mine on which the reduced value of quicksilver would have most influence, the cost of producing a mark of silver worth \$9, would, under different circumstances, as the price of quicksilver and maize, be approximately as follows:

	Maize, \$2 per fanega, Quicksilver, \$1 per lb.	Maize, \$2, Q. Silver, \$½.	Maize, \$4, Q. Silver, \$¾.	Maize, \$1, Q. Silver, \$¼.
Cost of extracting from mines	\$3 00	\$3 00	\$3 50	\$2 50
Cost of Maquila:				
Maize	\$0 69		1 40	0 35
Salt	0 50		0 52	0 40
Other materials	1 31		1 38	1 25
Managem't and labor	<u>1 50</u>	<u>4 00</u>	<u>1 50</u>	<u>1 50</u>
	4 00	4 00	4 80	3 50
Quicksilver	0 75	0 37	0 37	0 37
Duties on silver	0 37	0 38	0 38	0 38
Total cost of prod. a mark of sil.	<u>\$8 12</u>	<u>\$7 75</u>	<u>\$9 05</u>	<u>\$6 75</u>
Which is worth	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00
Leaves profit on mark	<u>\$0 88</u>	<u>\$1 25</u>	<u>Loss \$0 05</u>	<u>\$2 00</u>

In this district of Real del Monte, which, in many respects, is an exception to others: the mines, deep and much troubled

with water, are drained by steam power, while the ores of a poor and refractory class, being ground by steam or water power, and afterwards reduced, as at Freyberg, in barrels, the loss of quicksilver and consumption of maize are comparatively trifling; leaving other items, such as fuel and salt, to take the lead of the expenditure. The following will give some idea of the subdivision of one year's cost at Real del Monte.

Management labor	\$350,000 00
Wood, charcoal for fuel, timber, &c.	120,000 00
Salt	75,000 00
Maize, barley and straw	40,000 00
Quicksilver	15,000 00
Tallow	12,000 00
Powder	8,000 00
Litharge	8,000 00
Ropes and bags made of the aloë	9,000 00
Sundry stores	20,000 00
Duties	50,000 00
Total	<u>\$707,000 00</u>

We amalgamate in our barrels five times the quantity reduced by a similar process in the celebrated works of the King of Saxony at Freyberg.

From the foregoing statement I think you will perceive that the price of quicksilver has not directly very much influence in the produce of silver from poor mines; and although its cost will not prevent the working of rich ones, yet its cheapness, by allowing these to realize greater profits, will undoubtedly encourage mining industry, and thus indirectly lead to a greater produce of silver.

This increase in the produce of silver will, however, be again checked by the greatest obstacle which interferes with mining enterprise in this country, the scarcity of population and the unsteady working of that it possesses. Even in this district, so near the capital of the Republic, we are obliged to rely partly on convict labor. I could myself point out numerous mining districts which, without any diminution in the price of quicksilver, would pay well the cost of working, could sufficient and economical labor be obtained.

I shall, therefore, rather say, that any diminution in the value of quicksilver will, as far as relates to this country, and for some time, rather tend to render mining more profitable than in any very considerable degree to augment the produce of silver.

I do not possess any certain data as to the expenditure of quicksilver in this Republic, but think a very approximate estimate may be obtained in this way: the loss of quicksilver on

ores treated by amalgamation is on an average above $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pound per mark of silver; but although this is the process generally practised, yet some are reduced by smelting and the use of lead, which would diminish the average loss of quicksilver to about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pound on every mark of gold and silver produced.

If, then, to the total coinage of all the mints of the Republic there be added a fair allowance for that portion of the precious metals which are smuggled, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pound of quicksilver be taken for every mark, I think the result will be a very fair approximate estimate of the consumption of quicksilver in the Mexican Republic; which, even if the price go down to \$40 per quintal, will not for some years be augmented by more than 20 per cent.

J. B.

STATISTICS—RELIGIOUS, MORAL, &c.

AMERICAN MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.

The following tables have been compiled from the last reports of the different missionary societies in this country. They embrace the operations of these institutions among the heathen, the Oriental churches, the Jews of other lands, Liberia, the West Indies, and our own aborigines. The number of stations, it will be seen, is 261, of missionaries 369, of male assistants 79, and of female assistants 380.

Laborers and Results.

SOCIETIES.	Stations.	Ordained Missionaries.	Male Assistants.	Female Assistants.	Native Helpers.	Church Members.	Boarding Scholars.	Day Scholars.
Amer. Board of Com. for For. Mis.	110	151	34	201	142	24,763	*975	*22,334
Amer. Baptist Miss. Union.	30	47	7	57	140	9,487	581	1,579
Method. Miss. Society	27	37				3,319		681
Free Will Baptist Miss. Society	2	3		4	4	26	67	
Episc. Board of Missions†	6	7		15	7			
Presb. Board of Missions	27	50	17	52	29	389	540	1,751
Lutheran Miss. Society	4	7		4				
Seventh-Day Baptist Miss. Society	1	2		2		7		
Amer. Indian Miss. Association	6	8	3	13	8	1,320	167	10
Baptist Free Mission Society	1	1		2	1			
Associate Presb. Board of Miss.	1	1		2				
As. Ref. Presb. Board of Miss.	1	3	1	3				
Southern Baptist Board of Miss.	13	11	6	7	5			
Methodist South Miss. Society	25	28				3,494	395	
American Missionary Association	10	13	11	20	4			

* Including those supported by the Hawaiian Government.

† The Episcopal Board of Missions has 23 stations, foreign and domestic—100 missionaries, foreign and domestic, 15 female assistants, and 20 native teachers, and a large number of communicants. The statement in the table does not do justice to this institution.

Fields Occupied.

This table shows the fields occupied by the different societies, and the number of ordained missionaries in each.

SOCIETIES.	Indians.	Sand Islands and Borneo.	China.	Siam and Burmah.	India.	Western Asia and Greece.	South Africa.	West Africa.	West Indies.
Amer. Board of Com. for For. Mis.	24	27	9		35	36	14	6	
Amer. Baptist Miss. Union . . .	8		4	27	6	2			
Methodist Missionary Society . .	17		5					15	
Free Will Baptist Miss. Society .					3				
Episcopal Board of Missions . . .			2			1		4	
Presb. Board of Missions	9		10	2	25			4	
Lutheran Miss. Society					7				
Seventh-Day Baptist Miss. Society		2							
Amer. Indian Miss. Association . .	8								
Baptist Free Mission Society . . .									1
As. Presbyterian Board of Miss. . .									1
As. Ref. Presb. Board of Miss. . .						3			
Southern Baptist Board of Miss. .			4					7	
Methodist South Miss. Society . .	26		2						
American Missionary Association .	2	1		2				3	5
Totals	94	28	38	31	76	42	14	39	7

ABSTRACTS OF REPORTS OF RELIGIOUS AND BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

AMERICAN BIBLE SOCIETY.

During the past year, sixty-three auxiliaries had been adopted, and the Receipts from all sources have been \$276,882 52, which, including legacies, is less than the income of the previous year; but excluding legacies (a very fluctuating item) is larger by \$8,450 18. Number of Bibles and Testaments issued 592,432, or a total since the formation of the society of 7,572,967 copies.

The Board have issued a new Diamond 64mo. New Testament, some of the copies having also Book of Psalms appended. Also a School Testament, of large type, for children and imperfect readers. Also a New Testament of Swedish and English in parallel columns; and a similar Testament, in French and English, is in course of preparation.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.

The receipts of the year were, from all sources, \$44,983 73, balancing expenditures to the same amount. Balance on hand, at

the commencement of last year \$289 68. Amount due the Treasurer \$356 47. The total Foreign appropriations for the year amounted to \$23,000 77. The receipts from sales of Bibles and Testaments amounted to \$8,330 06.

The Foreign operations of the society showed the most gratifying results. The entire appropriations for Foreign Missions for the year, amounted to \$23,000 77.

The Society met with great success in Germany, where over 23,000 Bibles had been distributed. To Edinburgh over 25,000 Bibles and Testaments had been sent, and in many other parts of Europe, a like proportionate progress had been made.

From the various missionary stations in Asia the Board had received the most satisfactory assurances of success. The Bible had been translated, printed and widely circulated in India, Burmah, Tavoy, Siam, and China. What the Society had accomplished in all these countries offered the most gratifying assurances of success.

AMERICAN HOME MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

The Society has had in its service the last year 1,065 ministers of the Gospel, in 26 different States and territories: in the New England States, 311; in the Middle States, 224; the Southern States, 15; the Western States and territories, 515. Of these, 640 have been the pastors or stated supplies of single congregations; and 425 have occupied larger fields. Four have ministered to congregations of colored people; and 41 have preached in foreign languages—10 to Welsh, and 29 to German congregations; and 2 to congregations of Norwegians and Swedes. The number of congregations supplied, in whole or in part, 1,820; and the aggregate of ministerial service performed, is equal to 853 years. The pupils in Sabbath schools and Bible classes amount to 70,000. There have been added to the churches 6,678, viz.: 3,855 by profession, and 2,823 by letter. Many of the Western churches have been visited. Seventy-seven missionaries make mention in their reports of revivals of religion in congregations, and 366 report 3,096 hopeful conversions. The balance in the treasury, April 1st, 1850, was \$15,553 69. The receipts of the succeeding twelve months have been \$150,940 25; making the resources of the year \$166,493 94. There was due to missionaries, at the date of the last report, \$11,935 77. There has since become due, \$151,515 41; making the total of liabilities \$163,451 18. Of this sum, \$153,817 90 have been paid. The remainder, \$9,633 28, is still due to missionaries for labor performed. Towards liquidating these claims and redeeming the additional pledges on commis-

sions which have not yet expired—making, in all, \$64,906 49—there is a balance in the Treasury of \$12,676 04—the greater part of which was received near the close of the year, and is available only as a means of cancelling the present indebtedness of the society to its missionaries.

AMERICAN TRACT SOCIETY.

The receipts of the year, in donations, were \$109,897 76; for sales, \$200,720 33; balance in treasury last year, \$110 23—total \$310,728 32. Expenditures for paper, printing, binding, engraving, copy-right, translating, and revising, \$179,984 48; for colportage, \$73,278 23; remitted to foreign and pagan lands, \$20,000; other expenditures as by items in the Treasurer's report, \$37,356 59; total, \$310,619 30; balance in the Treasury, \$107 02. Due for printing-paper, to be paid within six months, \$32,908 64.

The operations of the Society within the past year, have resulted in the publication in nine languages, of 78 new works, of which 42 are volumes, including the Family Testament, with brief notes and instructions, and 14 volumes in German. The total publications on the Society's list are 1,598, of which 327 are volumes, besides 2,594 approved for foreign stations, in about 114 languages and dialects. There were circulated during the year, 886,692 vols., 7,837,692 publications, 269,984,615 pages—total in 26 years, 657,795 volumes, 119,826,867 publications, 2,777,807,404 pages. Illustrated Family Christian Almanac for 1851, 310,000 copies; American Messenger, 186,000 monthly; German Messenger, 18,000. The gratuitous distributions, in 2,697 distinct grants, to missionaries at home and abroad, the army and navy, seamen, humane and criminal institutions, Sabbath-schools and individuals, by colporters, and to life-members and directors, amounted to 56,638,543; value, \$37,759 03.

Twenty general agents and seven superintendents of colportage had been employed in large districts. They had remitted, during the year, to foreign and pagan lands, as proposed at the last anniversary, \$20,000: which had been appropriated to North American Indians, \$500; Toulouse, South of France, \$300; Paris Religious Tract Society, \$500; Baptist Mission, France, \$300; Belgium, \$200; Basle, Dr. Marriot, \$300; Hungary, \$100; Barmen, for "Alleine's Alarm," \$100; Nuremberg Evangelical Society, Bavaria, \$200; Hamburg Baptist Mission, \$700; Lower Saxony Tract Society, in part for Bohemia, \$300; Berlin, for Poles and Lithuanians, \$100; Denmark, \$100; Sweden, \$100; Russia, for army and navy \$1,000; Italy, through the Italian Society at Geneva, \$500; Greece Mission American Board, \$300; Episcopal Mission, \$200;

Armenians of Turkey, \$1,500; Syria, \$300; Salonica, \$100, Nestorians, \$400; South Africa Mission, \$100; Bombay, \$500; Ahmednugger, \$200; Madura, \$1,200; Ceylon, \$1,000; Madras, \$1,200; Teloogoos, Baptist Mission, \$200; Teloogoos, Lutheran Mission, \$100; Orissa, \$300; North India Missions, \$3,000; Burmah and Karens, \$400; Assam, \$200; Siam, Baptist Mission, \$800; China, Mission General Assembly's Board, \$300; Canton, Mission American Board, \$700; Southern Baptist Board, \$100; Hong Kong, Baptist Mission, \$400; Shanghai, Southern Baptist Board, \$200; (Shanghai, Protestant Episcopal Mission, \$200, transferred from Mission in Turkey;) Sandwich Islands, \$1,000—Total, \$20,000.

The report contains a sketch of the rise and the progress of the colportage system for ten years. No less than 1,599 different persons, in all, have been in commission as colporters, including 531 theological students; the number of families visited has been 2,168,793, of whom 374,320 were destitute of all religious books, except the Bible; 137,711 were without the scriptures, of whom 84,707 were supplied; and 224,913 families were Roman Catholics. Within the past three years, 233,345 families have been visited, who were habitual neglecters of the sanctuary. The colporters held prayer meetings, or addressed public meetings, to the number of 60,578; sold 2,424,630 books, and granted 652,668 volumes to poor and destitute families.

The statistical account of the colportage branch of the Association for the past year, showed that including 135 students from 40 colleges or seminaries for their vacations, 569 colporters have been employed for the whole or part of the year. The whole number in commission April 1, was 368. The statistical tables show that the colporters have visited 505,422 families, of whom 90,779 were destitute of preaching; 68,027 were without religious books; 34,684 without the Bible, and 54,321 families were Roman Catholics. They have sold 451,951 volumes; granted to the destitute 127,884 books; held prayer-meetings, or addressed public meetings, to the number of 13,306, and distributed 14,201 Bibles and Testaments.

AMERICAN TEMPERANCE UNION.

The following statistics are taken from the annual report of the Society for 1851:

More than 60,000 journals and 200,000 Youth's Advocates have been issued from their office; with these publications, home and foreign missions, two State Legislatures and numerous Sunday schools have been gratuitously supplied. 4,000 copies of the Half-Century Tribute to the cause have been distributed.

A new edition of Permanent Temperance Documents and several four-page tracts have been issued.—Numerous sermons and lectures have been preached and delivered by the corresponding secretary. Collections and donations, \$1,526 38. Ten auxiliary State Societies have held annual meetings, taken strong and decisive action, and made favorable reports. One new State Society has been organized in Iowa. Temperance Orders report a healthy condition and efficient action. The temperance advocacy and press have been elevated, and vigorous, and much local action has occurred of deep interest. Temperance legislation has advanced beyond any former year. Two decidedly protective bills were reported to the last New York Legislature, and laid over for action. In Iowa, an entirely prohibitory law has passed, and all drinking places are to be broken up as nuisances. The new constitution of Michigan precludes all future license of the traffic by the Legislature. The Legislatures of Illinois and Ohio have forbidden all sale for drinking on the premises, and the constitutional convention of Ohio have given it to the people to say at the ballot box in June next, whether any license shall hereafter be granted in the State. Vermont has decided once and again at the ballot against all license, and the State has now prohibited the sale by statute. Delaware has made all Sunday liquor traffic a criminal offence, and a bill is before the Massachusetts Legislature making the exhibition of the implements of drunkenness evidence of sale.

NATIONAL TEMPERANCE SOCIETY.

The National Temperance Society of the city of New York was formed in October, 1850, and celebrated its first anniversary on the 7th May last, at Tripler Hall, in that city. There was a very large attendance. The receipts amounted to \$2,295 44, and the disbursements to \$1,966 59. By the constitution twenty per cent. of all receipts is set apart for the erection of a Temperance Hall in the city of New York. When such a hall shall have been provided, the permanent fund will no longer accumulate, but all the receipts will be appropriated to the direct work of spreading truth throughout the community. For this permanent fund, there are now in the hands of the treasurer of the Board of Trustees \$323 68. Balance on hand May 1, for general purposes, \$5 17. To conduct their general operations for the ensuing year, to sustain the inebriate's Home, to act against the Sunday liquor traffic in the cities, and for the overthrow of the whole license system, and to co-operate with friends over the State to obtain a legal prohibition of the sale of intoxicating drinks, the Board estimate their present necessities at ten thousand dollars.

AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

The receipts for the year amounted to \$64,000, being 25 per cent. above those of the preceding year. The debt is now reduced to \$7,000. The Society has also secured from Congress an appropriation in payment of a claim for the expenses of the recaptured slaves of the bark *Pons*, in 1846, of which the New York State Society furnished more than \$6,000, not hitherto acknowledged among its expenditures, and for which remuneration is provided in the above appropriation. In Africa, affairs have progressed encouragingly. A final purchase has been made of the line of sea coast as far northwesterly as is desirable, and including the great slave factories at Gallinas. The government of Liberia has maintained its successful course, not only at peace, but as a successful peacemaker between the contending nations of the Vey, Goula, and Boosay tribes. Agriculture has received a great impulse by the successful introduction of horses from the interior of Africa. The attempt of a company in England to extend cotton planting on the coast of Africa, while unsuccessful elsewhere, has succeeded well in Liberia. An exploring tour has been undertaken up the St. John's river to its source, from which we may anticipate interesting information. Various explorations are now in progress from different portions of Africa, north, south, and east, from which better acquaintance may be hoped respecting unknown regions. State legislative action has been invoked in many parts of the United States, with much promise of success, and upon the whole, the past year has been one of unexampled prosperity.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN CHRISTIAN UNION.

The total receipts of this Association during the past year amounted to \$56,265 82, all of which has been expended. About \$34,000 has been expended on Missionary operations, and \$21,000 for printing and postage. The Report gives a brief survey of its operations both at home and abroad during the last year.

HOME FIELD.—The whole number of the missionaries employed by the Society in all its departments in this country during the whole or portions of the last year, was 78. Of this number 14 were Germans, 20 Irish, 10 French and Canadians, 3 Italians, 2 Spaniards and 2 Portuguese, and the rest were English and Americans. The number of languages in which these Missionaries endeavored to impart the Gospel was 7, viz: German, Irish, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese and English.—Of these Missionaries 32 were ordained ministers, 8 or 10 licentiates, and the rest were laymen. As to their ecclesiastical relations, they

were Methodists, Presbyterians, Baptists, Lutherans, German Reformed, Dutch Reformed—in a word, they were of all the great branches, and most of the smaller, of the one true Church of Christ in this land.

The fields of the labors of these men have been Boston, Providence, the Blackstone Valley, New Haven, Northern and Middle Vermont, the City of New York, Albany, Northern New York, Oswego, Rochester, Buffalo, Newark, N. J., Philadelphia, the Portuguese Colonies in Illinois, Wisconsin, New Orleans, and the Valley of the Rio Grande in Texas. Almost without exception, the missionaries have had most encouraging success in their work.

Comparatively few of the laborers of the Society are Americans, or labor among our American population. They are principally from other nations, and labor in behalf of their own countrymen, who are now, however, or will soon become American citizens.

The number of churches collected by the missionaries is fifteen, the number now connected with the Board is ten; while the number of preaching stations which are regularly sustained every Sabbath, beside the churches referred to, is upward of twenty. Excepting in cases where it is unavoidable, the Board do not intend or desire to form churches, preferring that those who are detached from Rome may be induced to go to such of the Evangelical Churches as are near them, or such as they may prefer.

Sabbath schools are connected with most of the churches, and also with many of the preaching stations. Several hundreds of children, whose parents are Roman Catholics, now regularly attend those Sabbath schools.

The Report states that demands are made for laborers, German, or Irish, or French, in New Orleans, Mobile, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, Charleston, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Hartford, Springfield, and the Valley of the Connecticut throughout, Lowell, Lawrence, Portland, and a great number of other places.

FOREIGN FIELD.—The Report reviews the operations of the Board in France and Belgium, in Ireland, Sweden, Italy, Chili, Hayti, and refers to the work in Canada, in Russia, and speaks of other fields as being more or less open, such as Brazil and Mexico—the latter being particularly accessible from the Valley of the Rio Grande. The Society sustains thirty missionaries abroad, three of whom are in Italy.

AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS.

The amount received from all sources during the year, ending 31st July 1851, was \$274,902 21. The expenditures for the same period were \$284,830 56. The Society's debt on that day,

was \$43,999 20, which exceeded that of the preceding year by about \$10,000. This increased indebtedness arose from increased expenditure, partly on account of the extended operations of the society, and partly owing to greater expense than usual in making remittances to the missions. These are made by means of drafts drawn on London; and as the balance of trade was against England during the last year, the drafts did not sell so well as formerly, so that the loss to the Society was \$10,744. The actual receipts exceeded those of 1850 by \$23,039 93.

The numerous missions are all in a flourishing condition; and new fields are opening in various parts, so that the wants of adequate funds alone prevent the society from greatly increasing the number of missionaries and stations. The following summary of the last report exhibits the present statistics of the Society operations.

1. *The Missions.*

Missions	25
Stations	110
Out-stations	34

2. *Laborers employed.*

Ordained Missionaries—(8 Physicians,)	159
Licentiates	3
Physicians not ordained	7
Other Male Assistants	24
Female Assistants	209
Total	—402
Number of Native Pastors	11
Other Native Preachers	20
Other Native Helpers	127
Whole number of Native Assistants	—158
Total laborers connected with the mission	—560

3. *The Press.*

Printing Establishments	12
Pages printed last year	52,669,739
“ “ from the beginning	948,589,286

4. *The Churches.*

Churches	92
Church Members	23,971
Added during the year	1,222

5. *Educational Department.*

Seminaries	7
Other Boarding Schools	22
Free Schools, (437 supported by Hawaiian Government)	734
Pupils in the Seminaries (64 do.)	331
“ “ Boarding-Schools	708
“ “ Free Schools (13,261 do.)	22,334
“ in all the Schools	— 23,373

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.

Foreign operations.—M. de Pressense issued during the last year 109,210 copies; the French and Foreign Bible Society, after deducting 15,000 copies sold to the British Society, 52,849; the Protestant Bible Society of Paris, 6,535; and a grant has been made to it of 500 Bibles for the use of schools. In Belgium, Holland, and the Northern parts of Germany, Mr. Tiddy issued 85,534, irrespective of 12,936 forwarded to different societies or agencies, and there have been sent from Great Britain, for the depots at Brussels and Cologne, 2,033 Bibles, and 2,520 Testaments, in English, French, German, &c. A gratifying report has been received from the Society's agent in Germany, Dr. Pinkerton, whose issues amounted to nearly 71,000. The issues from the eleven depots in Switzerland, by Lieutenant Graydon, have been nearly 1,000 copies more than last year, amounting to 6,006, in return for which he received and remitted 7,064 francs. The Geneva committee have disposed of 3,594 copies, from November, 1848, to the end of December, 1850.

In Italy the work of the society has been chiefly confined to the Northern parts, more especially to Piedmont and Lombardy. At Milan the authorities, more especially the military authorities, have allowed the introduction of the Scriptures, and 8,914 copies have been disposed of, principally through the booksellers. Eleven thousand two hundred and fifty-one copies of the Scriptures have been disposed of in Lombardy and the Sardinian territories, 68,000 of the Italian version have been put in press, and 20,047 sent to Italy. Three thousand six hundred and forty-two copies of the Italian New Testament, printed in behalf of the society at Rome, have been passed into the hands of the Papal Government, who have paid back the full amount of their cost. Mr. Elsner, of Berlin, whose distributions among the troops of Prussia has now amounted to above 335,000 copies, received supplies last year of 2,600 copies. The agency at Stockholm have issued 50,667, and at Christiana, 6,876 copies.

The Schleswig Holstein Bible Society reports an issue of 6,570 Bibles and Testaments in two years, in the two duchies. The St. Petersburg agency issue last year was 27,633, and Mr. Melville, of Odessa, issued 5,652 copies. From the depot at Malta 12,655 copies have been issued, and from the depot at Athens 1,338. The Scriptures are now printed in one volume in modern Greek, and the New Testament is given freely to the schools. The issues from Smyrna and Constantinople have been 10,325 copies. A firman has just been issued by the Sultan, granting enlarged protection to Protestants in Turkey. The circulation of the auxiliary

at Calcutta was 29,982. The revised translation of the New Testament into Chinese was brought to a close on the 24th of July last; and the committee regret to say that the controversy as to the terms "God" and "Spirit" still continues. To the London Missionary Society a grant has been made of £250 toward printing an edition of the new version at Hong Kong—the blanks left by the translators for "God" and "Spirit" being filled up by the native terms "Shang" and "Shin." To the Church Missionary Society a tender of £250 was made for the same purpose, on the application of some of the missionaries, who proposed to employ the terms "Shin" and "Ling," but it has not yet been accepted.

Domestic operations.—The entire receipts of the year ending March 31st, 1851, amounted to £103,330 2s. 8d., being an increase of £11,695 10s. 1d. on those of last year. The receipts applicable to the general purposes of the Society amounted to £53,795 7s. 10d., including £33,896 0s. 10d, free contributions from auxiliary societies. The amount received for Bibles and Testaments was £49,534 14s. 10d. The issues of the Society for the year are as follows:—From the depot at home, 788,073; from the depots abroad, 339,544; total, 1,137,617. The total issues of the society now amount to 247,667 copies. The expenditure during the past year has amounted to £103,543 10s. 10d., being £6,297 8s. 10d. over the previous year. The society is under engagements to the extent of £61,458 2s. The adoption of the system of colportage had met with great success in Manchester and Liverpool, particularly in Liverpool, where a single colporter disposed of 7,029 copies in the course of last year. The fund of £5,000, which had been set apart for the supply of recently formed Sunday and day schools, having become exhausted, a further sum of £1,000 has been applied to the same purpose. During the year 12,265 Bibles and Testaments have been granted to schools from that fund.

The following grants have also been made:—To the Merchant Seamen's Bible Society, 10,947 copies of Bibles and Testaments; to emigrants and convicts;—to the London City Mission, 7,525 copies, the greater part of which are intended to be placed in the hands of the missionaries for loan stock; to the London Society for Promoting Christianity among the Jews, for distribution on the Continent, 75 English Bibles and Testaments, 900 Hebrew and German and Pentateuchs, 400 German Bibles and Testaments, and 100 Dutch Bibles; to the Manchester Town Mission, 100 English Testaments and Psalms, as loan stock; 400 Bibles to the Sunday School Union; to the Glasgow Auxiliary, 226 Bibles and Testaments in various languages; to correspondents in Scotland, 200 Gaelic Bibles and Testaments, and 84 English.

The issues of the Hibernian Bible Society during the past year amounted to 103,138 copies. To the Sunday School Society have been granted 34,000 copies, of which 15,000 were Bibles, and 19,000 Testaments; to the ladies' Hibernian School Society, 500 Bibles; to the Edinburgh Irish Mission, 100 Irish Testaments; and to the Irish Trinitarian Bible Society, chiefly for distribution among emigrants, 500 Bibles and 300 Testaments. In the Great Exhibition the committee have sought and obtained a niche for the Bible—170 specimens of versions, in 130 languages, selected from a yet larger number in the publication of which the society has more or less assisted, being exhibited; and that measures have also been adopted, by which the vast multitudes, whether of foreigners or of Englishmen who are expected shortly to be drawn together, may have a ready opportunity of supplying themselves with copies of the Scriptures in various languages.

Printing the Scriptures.—From a Parliamentary return obtained by Mr. Hume, it appears that the Queen's printers printed, from the 1st of January, 1848, to the 31st of December 1850, 1,157,500 Bibles and 752,000 Testaments. The drawback of paper duty received was in the same period £7,723 8s. 10³/₄d. At Oxford University Press, in 1848, 261,500 Bibles and 262,000 Testaments were printed. In 1849, 368,500 Bibles and 253,500 Testaments; whilst, in 1850, there were 305,750 Bibles and 235,000 Testaments. At Cambridge, in the three years, the number was 138,500 Bibles and 204,000 Testaments.

PARIS EVANGELICAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

From the Treasurer's report it appears that the balance on hand at the commencement of the year was 145,085 fr.; and the receipts for the year have been 108,393 fr., the donations and subscriptions having amounted to 99,321 fr. The disbursements of the year were 141,028 fr., of which 105,704 fr. have been disbursed for the mission in South Africa, besides 10,790 fr. appropriated for the education of missionaries' children.

The society is contemplating an enlargement of its operations. To this end it is proposed to commence a new mission in the French Antilles.

Stations.	Communicants	Catechu.	Schol.	Cong'ns.
Wellington . .	44	15		300
Bethulia . .	200		140	500
Carmel . .	40	16		
Beersheba . .	391	106	80	600
Morija . .	326	146		
Thaba Bossiou .	121	9		250
Mekuatling . .		50		
Berea . .	23			

NEW YORK COMMON SCHOOLS.

The following tables are from the Annual Report of JOSEPH M'KEEN, Esq., City Superintendent of Common Schools, for the year ending 31st July, 1851; and they may be relied on for accuracy :—

Table No. 1 contains the juvenile population of Wards, of all persons under twenty years of age, classified into males and females, from 1 to 5, from 5 to 10, from 10 to 15, and from 15 to 20 years of age. This table added perpendicularly, shows the number of male and female of each period of 5 years, up to 20. Added horizontally, it shows the number under 20 in each Ward in the city.

Table No. 2 shows the complete census of 1850, in its first column; in the second, the number under 20 years; in the third column, the number between 5 and 15, the proper school-going period; and the fourth, the number who have been in the schools for some portion of time during the past year, arranged by Wards. It seems to me that the proper and most suitable years for Common School education are from 5 to 15. By this table it may be seen that the number whose names have been entered at the schools during the last year, is 10,437 more than the whole number of persons of this proposed school period. From another table it may be seen that there have been 14,013 children, under 5 years old, and about 1,300 [this is not accurately ascertained] over 15 years, in the schools. The numbers under 5 and over 15 added together, make 16,013, this taken from the 108,472 which have been in the schools, leave 93,459 between the ages of 5 and 16, who have been in school. But the whole number, between 5 and 16, in 1850, by the census, was 98,035; deduct the 93,459 and there remains 4,576 plus increase since June, 1850, who appear not to have been at any public school.

Table No. 3 is a condensed abstract of the schools, as they are classified, under the names of Public, Ward and Corporate, made out in conformity with the requirements of the State Superintendent of Schools, showing the average attendance in each class of schools, &c.

In these tabular statements, the Evening Schools, the Free Academy, and Normal Schools are not included. These being added, the Evening Schools give 9,011, and the Free Academy* and the Normal Schools 700 more.

* This flourishing Institution, the first of its kind, is under the charge of Horace Webster, L. L. D., formerly of Geneva College.

TABLE No. 1.

Abstract of New York City by Wards, between 1 and 20.

Wards.	1 to 5 years.		5 to 10.		10 to 15.		15 to 20.		Total.
	Male.	Fem.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
1st.....	587	250	735	759	606	576	922	776	5,211
2d.....	188	205	188	203	171	183	431	312	1,881
3d.....	307	327	330	349	276	309	453	516	2,867
4th.....	1,115	1,044	1,093	1,046	892	873	984	1,154	8,201
5th.....	889	886	932	988	739	840	827	1,256	7,357
6th.....	1,105	981	1,085	1,125	900	925	1,054	1,292	8,467
7th.....	1,564	1,584	1,650	1,572	1,408	1,430	1,374	1,766	12,348
8th.....	1,579	1,492	1,546	1,609	1,609	1,305	1,483	1,995	12,618
9th.....	2,067	2,078	2,282	2,399	1,898	2,072	1,839	2,551	17,186
10th.....	1,177	1,149	1,088	1,097	897	1,035	964	1,213	8,620
11th.....	2,606	2,561	2,682	2,609	1,879	2,164	1,746	2,144	18,593
12th.....	505	526	1,033	686	691	507	346	492	4,786
13th.....	1,517	1,563	1,614	1,570	1,251	1,340	1,217	1,471	11,543
14th.....	1,157	1,100	1,293	1,286	1,134	1,096	1,377	1,096	9,539
15th.....	832	837	1,035	1,021	996	851	851	1,380	7,803
16th.....	2,976	2,961	3,187	3,277	2,740	2,056	2,056	2,732	21,985
17th.....	2,441	2,334	2,351	2,374	2,016	1,854	1,854	2,326	17,550
18th.....	804	685	1,743	1,764	1,522	1,568	1,276	1,780	11,142
19th.....	1,007	846	1,008	960	847	812	779	896	7,156
	24,423	23,409	26,877	26,694	22,672	21,796	21,833	27,148	194,852

TABLE No. 2.

Wards.	Pop. of 1851— U. S. census.	Under 20 years.	Between 5 and 15.	Num. who have been in sc.	Av. att. in sc.
1st.....	19,755	5,211	2,676	3,809	1,566
2d.....	6,616	1,881	745	00	00
3d.....	10,356	2,867	1,264	00	00
4th.....	23,250	8,201	2,904	7,127	2,386
5th.....	22,691	7,357	3,499	2,856	1,104
6th.....	24,698	8,467	4,035	5,220	1,760
7th.....	32,697	12,348	6,060	6,076	2,408
8th.....	34,413	12,618	6,065	7,470	2,761
9th.....	40,675	17,186	8,651	10,820	3,454
10th.....	23,316	8,620	4,117	4,897	2,365
11th.....	43,772	18,593	9,536	10,609	3,141
12th.....	10,453	4,786	2,917	4,175	1,698
13th.....	29,244	11,543	5,775	6,289	2,626
14th.....	25,206	9,539	4,809	6,426	2,444
15th.....	22,564	7,803	3,903	5,240	2,439
16th.....	52,887	21,985	11,260	8,100	2,106
17th.....	43,780	17,550	8,595	6,141	2,364
18th.....	31,557	11,142	6,597	6,997	2,761
19th.....	18,463	7,155	3,627	6,020	2,745
	515,393	194,852	98,035	108,472	41,128

FREE SCHOOLS IN CANADA WEST.

The Trustees of Toronto have, it is said, adopted the Free School principle. For three years past, the children of poor parents have been exempted from the school-rate bill, but the parties for whom this indulgence was allowed refusing to accept what they regarded as a humiliating distinction, more than half the children of the city, between the ages of 5 and 15 years, have not attended any school. In the future, under the new system, the public schools are to be free to all, on equal terms, whether rich or poor. The High Church party, despairing of being able any longer to maintain their exclusive claim to the lands known as the clergy reserves, of which the people have, for twenty-five years, demanded the secularization, propose now a scheme for the division of the lands among all denominations, according to numbers. The plan is submitted by Captain Strachan, a son of the Bishop of Toronto; and, taking the census of 1848 for a basis, he suggests the following order of distribution :—

	Population.	Share in No. of Acres.
1. The Church of England	171,741	772,379
2. The Church of Scotland	67,900	305,550
3. The Free Presbyterian Church of Canada	64,729	291,380
4. Wesleyan Methodists	90,366	401,638
5. Episcopal Methodists	36,893	176,018
6. Baptists	28,965	130,342
7. Lutherans	7,420	23,590
8. Independents	6,126	29,567
9. Universalists	2,269	10,210
10. Other Presbyterians	29,370	91,665
11. Other Methodists	14,977	67,396

It is thought the compromise will not be accepted, though it will be tested, perhaps, at the next election. There is a kindred movement making in Lower Canada to secularize the Roman Catholic Church property there, in case such a measure is carried out against that of the Protestant Church. The Montreal Courier says on the subject that three Roman Catholic institutions in Lower Canada possess a total income larger than the whole Provincial revenue. It is said, however, that while the French maintain their present influence in the Legislature, it is in vain to attempt touching the property in question.

LIBRARIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY PROF. C. C. JEWETT,

Librarian of the Smithsonian Institution.*

CLASSIFICATION.—In the following Table are exhibited, in seven classes, the number of libraries in each State, with the number of volumes which they contain. These several classes of libraries may be characterized, in general terms, as follows:

1. *State libraries*, including those of the general government and of the executive departments, and those of the State courts. Almost all the States in the Union have organized State libraries. Those which have not, possess collections of books which will ere long serve as the foundations of such libraries. These libraries are composed, to a great extent, of public documents of the general and State governments, with works on statistics, political economy, history, &c. Some of them, as the Library of Congress, the New York State Library, &c., take a much wider range, and are extremely valuable collections for general reference.

2. *Social libraries*, including athenæums, lyceums, young men's associations, mechanics' institutions, mercantile libraries, &c.—These libraries are generally composed of popular works for reading rather than for reference. But among them are many of the best collections in the country. We think that any one, looking over the catalogues of these libraries, would be surprised and gratified to find them generally so well selected.

In some States, almost every town has, under some name, a social library. Most of these collections, it is true, are very small, containing less than a thousand volumes; but there doubtless are a great many, far more considerable in size, which have been unintentionally overlooked.

3. *College libraries*, (exclusive of students' libraries.)—Our colleges are mostly eleemosynary institutions. Their libraries are frequently the chance aggregations of the gifts of charity; too many of them discarded, as well nigh worthless, from the shelves of the donors. This is not true of all our college libraries; for among them are some very important collections, chosen with care and competent learning, purchased with economy, and guarded with prudence,—though ever available to those who wish to use them aright.

4. *Students' libraries* in colleges, professional schools, academies, &c.—The societies formed by students in our seminaries of learning, for mutual improvement in debate and composition, for the

* From the Smithsonian Reports of 1850.

most part possess libraries. These are generally useful collections of books of a popular character. Sometimes (in Yale College particularly) they are large, well selected, and admirably arranged and kept. Dust seldom gathers on the books in such collections.

5. *Libraries of professional schools and incorporated academies.*—This class includes theological seminaries, law schools, medical colleges, and military academies as well as high schools, generally termed in this country "academies." The professional schools, several of them, possess the best special libraries in the country. These institutions (particularly the theological) are so frequently connected with academies, that it was found most convenient to group them together. The notices in the body of this work will generally enable the reader to subdivide this class, as well as the other classes, if desired.

6. *Libraries of Learned Societies*,—scientific, literary and historical. These libraries are mostly composed of the Transactions of similar societies and of periodicals which contain the current records of science and letters. They have been mostly procured by donation and exchange. Some of these collections are extensive and important. The historical societies are doing great service in gathering and guarding the precious memorials of our early annals.

7. *Public School Libraries.* Several of the States have taken great interest in supplying every township and school district with a library. Other States have commenced such collections, and it is to be hoped that they may be greatly multiplied. They are not intended for pupils alone, but for all the population of the district or township to which they belong. They are composed of valuable books, designed and adapted to communicate useful knowledge in a popular way, and to cultivate all the higher elements of character. They are in continual use, and it is impossible to over-estimate their beneficial influence.

Another class of libraries of which it has not been in my power to collect the statistics comprises *Sunday School Libraries*. The aggregate number of books which they contain is very great. These books, though mostly for juvenile readers, are always of a moral or religious tendency, and they have vast influence in forming the intellectual as well as the moral character of the people.

Tabular view of Public Libraries in the United States.

STATES.	State Libraries.		Social Libraries.		College Libraries.		Students' Libraries.		Libraries of Academies and Professional Schools.		Libraries of Scientific and Historical Societies.		Public School Libraries.		Totals for States.	
	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.	No.	Volumes.
Maine.....	1	9,000	2	6,370	2	16,800	6	13,134	2	10,800	1	300	17	452	31	56,856
New Hampshire.....	1	4,700	9	13,878	1	6,400	5	16,200	7	10,700	2	2,800	25	2,500	50	57,178
Vermont.....	1	3,500	3	13,032	3	13,032	5	8,667	13	*9,100	23	34,299
Massachusetts.....	1	7,400	23	126,869	4	71,693	15	28,735	9	45,450	10	44,572	700	91,539	762	415,658
Rhode Island.....	5	25,104	1	25,000	7	7,600	35	19,637	45	79,341
Connecticut.....	1	3,000	3	14,234	3	29,138	7	38,666	3	6,300	2	3,000	3	*7,000	19	98,638
New York.....	3	34,099	21	151,894	8	43,376	7	19,319	171	143,465	4	25,253	8,070	1,338,848	8,284	1,756,254
New Jersey.....	1	5,000	3	4,300	3	18,000	2	7,000	1	9,000	1	825	6	*2,180	17	46,305
Pennsylvania.....	1	10,000	16	125,385	10	37,875	12	29,350	7	38,300	5	38,478	29	*8,131	80	287,519
Delaware.....	1	4,000	1	4,000	1	2,300	12	6,200	5	16,700
Maryland.....	1	15,000	9	32,156	6	25,592	4	1,700	3	3,150	1	1,500	22	*5,467	46	84,565
District of Columbia.....	10	100,200	2	7,000	2	29,500	4	2,800	2	9,173	20	148,673
Virginia.....	1	14,000	4	3,313	9	45,790	8	10,466	5	12,951	1	1,300	2	*1,460	30	89,180
North Carolina.....	1	3,000	3	9,401	2	8,848	2	3,000	8	24,247
South Carolina.....	2	28,500	2	19,000	4	1,900	5	3,000	1	*250	14	59,914
Georgia.....	1	6,510	5	15,637	4	4,685	2	5,000	1	2,000	11	*1,800	24	35,632
Florida.....	2	4,000	1	1,337	1	*200	4	5,537
Alabama.....	1	1,454	4	13,000	..	2,623	30	*1,000	37	18,077
Mississippi.....	1	5,000	3	5,189	2	2,411	102	*3,050	108	15,650
Louisiana.....	1	7,000	1	10,000	4	13,000	2	6	30,000
Texas.....	1	1,001	1	300	2	*330	4	1,631
Arkansas.....	1	8,000	1	1,000	1	1,000
Tennessee.....	1	9,000	1	3,500	9	20,844	8	9,912	1	3,500	2	*5,100	21	47,356
Kentucky.....	1	12,500	1	21,995	10	37,150	10	7,190	3	4,000	1	1,500	1	*1,100	27	63,440
Ohio.....	1	4,400	13	35,510	13	35,510	19	20,905	3	12,529	1	1,000	3	*1,595	48	104,634
Michigan.....	1	4,400	4	3,315	4	10,300	374	47,220	381	65,235
Indiana.....	1	7,000	4	10,700	6	4,800	4	4,800	16	*200	16	40,000
Illinois.....	1	4,000	2	2,821	4	8,120	2	625	2	2,000	1	*2,350	27	19,916
Missouri.....	1	4,637	2	5,799	5	18,465	1	1,605	1	500	1	300	4	*6,200	19	37,506
Iowa.....	1	2,500	4	*160	5	2,660
Wisconsin.....	1	4,000	1	1,000	33	*2,163	35	7,163
Minnesota.....	1	3,000	1	2,000	2	3,200
Total.....	39	288,937	126	611,334	126	586,912	142	254,639	227	320,909	34	138,901	9,505	1,552,332	10,199	3,753,964

* For the sums marked with an asterisk, I am indebted to the courtesy of Mr. Kennedy, superintendent of the 7th census.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Whole number of Libraries exclusive of those of the public schools	694
Aggregate number of volumes	2,201,632
Whole number of Libraries containing, each, 1,000 volumes and upwards	423
Aggregate number of volumes in these Libraries.	2,105,652
Average size	4,977
Number of Libraries reported, containing less than 1,000 volumes, each	271
Aggregate number of volumes in these Libraries.	95,980
*Number of Libraries containing 1,000 volumes and upwards, and less than 5,000	198
Number of Libraries containing 5,000 volumes and upwards, and less than 10,000	175
Number of Libraries containing 10,000 volumes and upwards, and less than 20,000	43
Number of Libraries containing 20,000 volumes and upwards, and less than 50,000	11
There are but five Libraries containing, each, 50,000 volumes and upwards, namely:	5
Harvard University—	
Public Library	56,000
Law Library	14,000
Theological Library	3,000
Medical Library	1,200
Students' Libraries	10,000
	84,200
The Philadelphia Library, (including the Loganian Library)	60,000
Yale College—	
College Library	20,515
Medical Library	900
Law Library	1,900
Students' Libraries	27,166
	50,481
The Library of Congress	50,000
The Boston Athenæum	50,000

* In this statement, and in those which follow, the Libraries of Societies of students, and those of professional department are counted with the Libraries of the Colleges or Seminaries with which they are connected.

THE ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES.*

MILITARY DEPARTMENTS AND DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES
ARMY.*Departments.*

No. 1. Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Head-quarters at Fort Adams, R. I.

No. 2. Michigan, Wisconsin (east of the line from Fond du Lac to Cape Sable), Ohio, and Indiana. Head-quarters at Detroit.

No. 3. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland. Head-quarters at Baltimore.

No. 4. Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and that part of Florida lying within the Eastern Division. Head-quarters at Fort Monroe, Va.

No. 5. The portion of Florida within the Western Division, the States of Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Head-quarters at New Orleans.

No. 6. Wisconsin (west of the line from Fond du Lac to Cape Sable), Iowa, Illinois, and Missouri, above the 37th degree of north latitude. Head-quarters at St. Louis.

No. 7. The country west of the Mississippi, south of the 37th degree of north latitude, north of Louisiana and Texas, and east of Department No. 9. Head-quarters at Fort Smith, Arkansas Territory.

No. 8. That part of Texas lying south and east of a line drawn from a point on the Rio Grande, opposite the southernmost limit of the island south of El Paso, containing the towns of San Elizario, Socorra, and Isletta, to the junction of the *Ensenada Choctaw* (Choctaw Creek) with the Colorado or Red River, and down said river to Arkansas. Head-quarters at San Antonio.

No. 9. New Mexico, and the territory north and west of the aforesaid line, from the Rio Grande to and down the Colorado or Red River, formerly claimed as a part of New Mexico. Head-quarters at Santa Fé.

No. 10. The Territory of California. Head-quarters at Benicia.

No. 11. The Territory of Oregon. Head-quarters at Vancouver.

* In the preceding volumes we have from time to time given the lists of the officers, and tables of the rank and file of the army.

Divisions.

The Eastern Division is composed of the 1st, 2d, 3d and 4th departments. Head-quarters at Troy, N. Y.

The Western Division is composed of the 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th and 9th departments. Head-quarters at New Orleans.

The Pacific Division of the 10th and 11th departments. Head-quarters at Sonoma, California.

MILITIA OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1851.

States and Territories.*	For what year.	Gen. Officers.	General Staff Officers.	Field Officers. &c.	Company Officers.	Total Commissioned Officers.	Non-commissioned Officers, Musicians, Artificers, & Priv.	Aggregate.
Maine . . .	1850	22	62	478	1,239	1,801	48,804	50,605
N. Hampshire	1849	12	54	339	1,118	1,523	26,344	27,867
Massachusetts	1849	7	35	78	357	477	101,304	101,781
Vermont . .	1843	12	51	224	801	1,088	22,827	23,915
Rhode Island .	1850	6	16	30	19	71	14,966	15,037
Connecticut .	1846	11	33	292	983	1,324	56,395	57,719
New York . .	1850	122	356	1,796	5,940	8,214	216,451	224,665
New Jersey .	1829	19	58	435	1,476	1,988	37,183	39,171
Pennsylvania .	1847	55	164	1,245	6,054	7,518	268,552	276,070
Delaware . .	1827	4	8	71	364	447	8,782	9,229
Maryland . .	1838	22	68	544	1,763	2,397	44,467	46,864
Virginia . . .	1850	28	60	1,395	5,147	6,630	117,103	123,733
N. Carolina .	1845	28	133	657	3,449	4,267	75,181	79,448
S. Carolina .	1848	19	96	452	2,024	2,591	52,618	55,209
Georgia . . .	1839	36	98	746	2,212	3,092	54,220	57,312
Florida . . .	1845	3	14	95	508	620	11,502	12,122
Alabama . . .	1850	32	170	760	1,425	2,387	55,661	58,048
Louisiana . .	1847	10	55	159	1,168	1,392	42,431	43,823
Mississippi .	1838	15	70	392	348	825	35,259	36,084
Tennessee . .	1840	25	79	859	2,644	3,607	67,645	71,252
Kentucky . .	1850	43	145	1,136	3,474	4,798	82,809	87,607
Ohio	1845	91	217	462	1,281	2,051	174,404	176,455
Michigan . . .	1850	30	154	401	2,208	2,793	61,145	63,938
Indiana . . .	1832	31	110	566	2,154	2,861	51,052	53,913
Illinois . . .	1841	—	—	—	—	—	—	83,234
Wisconsin . .	1848	9	31	212	1,552	1,804	30,399	32,203
Missouri . . .	1844	45	94	790	2,990	3,919	57,081	61,000
Arkansas . . .	1843	8	29	310	762	1,109	16,028	17,137
Texas	1847	15	45	248	940	1,243	18,518	19,766
D. of Columbia	1832	1	3	24	68	96	1,153	1,249
Total . . .		761	2,513	15,196	54,468	72,938	1,850,284	2,006,456

* No returns from Iowa, California, Minnesota, Oregon, Utah, and New Mexico.

NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Vessels of War of United States.

NAME.	RATE.	Where built.	When built.	Situation.	Where.
<i>Ships of the Line.</i>					
Pennsylvania	120	Philadelphia	1837	In commission	Receiv. Ship, Norfolk.
Franklin	74	Do.	1815	In ordinary	Portsmouth, N. H.
Columbus	74	Washington	1819	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Ohio	74	New York	1820	In commission	Receiving Ship, Boston.
North Carolina	74	Philadelphia	1820	Do.	Do. do. N. Y.
Delaware	74	Gosport, Va.	1820	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Alabama	74			On the stocks	Portsmouth, N. H.
Vermont	74	Boston	1848	In ordinary	Boston.
Virginia	74			On the stocks	Boston.
New York	74			Do.	Norfolk.
New Orleans	74			Do.	Sackett's Harbor.
<i>Razee.</i>					
Independence	54	Boston	1814	In commission	Mediterranean.
<i>Frigates—1st class.</i>					
United States	44	Philadelphia	1797	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Constitution	44	Boston	1797	Do.	New York.
Potomac	44	Washington	1821	Do.	Norfolk.
Brandywine	44	Do.	1825	Do.	New York.
Columbia	44	Do.	1836	Do.	Norfolk.
Congress	44	Portsmouth	1841	In commission	Coast of Brazil.
Cumberland	44	Boston	1842	Preparing for sea	Boston.
Savannah	44	New York	1842	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Raritan	44	Philadelphia	1843	In commission	Pacific.
Santee	44			On the stocks	Portsmouth, N. H.
Sabine	44			Do.	New York.
St. Lawrence	44	Norfolk	1847	In commission	Pacific.
<i>Frigates—2d class.</i>					
Constellation	36	Baltimore	1797	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Macedonian	36	Capt. in 1812, rebuilt.	1836	Do.	New York.
<i>Sloops of War.</i>					
Saratoga	20	Portsmouth	1842	In commission	East Indies.
John Adams	20	Charleston, '99, rebt.	1820	Do.	Coast of Africa.
Vincennes	20	New York	1826	Do.	Pacific.
Warren	20	Boston	1826	Do.	Pacific.
Falmouth	20	Do.	1827	Do.	Pacific.
Fairfield	20	New York	1828	In ordinary	Norfolk.
Vandalia	20	Philadelphia	1828	In commission	Pacific.
St. Louis	20	Washington	1828	Preparing for sea	Norfolk.
Cyane	20	Boston	1837	In commission	Home Squadron.
Levant	20	New York	1837	Preparing for sea	Norfolk.
Portsmouth	20	Portsmouth	1843	In commission	Pacific.
Plymouth	20	Boston	1843	Do.	East Indies.
St. Mary's	20	Washington	1844	Do.	Pacific.
Jamestown	20	Norfolk	1844	Do.	Coast of Brazil.
Albany	20	New York	1846	Do.	Home Squadron.
Germantown	20	Philadelphia	1846	Do.	Coast of Africa.
Ontario	18	Baltimore	1813	Do.	Receiv. Sh., Baltimore.
Decatur	16	New York	1839	Do.	Home Squadron.
Marion	16	Boston	1839	Do.	East Indies.
Dale	16	Philadelphia	1839	Do.	Coast of Africa.
Prebble	16	Portsmouth	1839	Do.	Prac. Ship, Annapolis.
<i>Brigs.</i>					
Dolphin	10	New York	1836	In commission	Special service.
Porpoise	10	Boston	1836	Do.	Coast Survey.
Bainbridge	10	Do.	1842	Do.	Coast of Africa.
Perry	10	Norfolk	1843	In ordinary	Norfolk.
<i>Schooners.</i>					
Wave	1	Transferred		In commission	Coast survey.
Phoenix	2	Do.		Do.	Do.
Petrel	1	Purchased		In ordinary	New York.
<i>STEAMERS.</i>					
<i>Steam Frigates.</i>					
Mississippi	10	Philadelphia	1841	Preparing for sea	East Indies.
Susquehanna	9	Do.	1850	In commission	Do.
Powhatan	9	Norfolk	1850	Preparing for sea	Norfolk.
San Jacinto	6	New York	1850	In commission	Mediterranean.
Saranac	6	Portsmouth	1848	Do.	Home Squadron.
<i>First class.</i>					
Princeton	10	N. Y.—Boston, rebt.	1843	Preparing for sea	East Indies.
Fulton	5	New York	1837	In commission	Home Squadron.

NAME.	RATE.	Where built.	When built.	Situation.	Where.
STEAMERS.	Guns.				
Michigan.....	1....	Erie, Pa.....	1844....	In commission.....	Lakes.
Alleghany.....	2....	Pittsburg, Pa.....	1847....	In ordinary.....	Washington.
<i>Less than 1st class.</i>					
Union.....		Norfolk.....	1842....	In commission.....	Receiv. ship, Philadel.
Vixen.....	3....	Purchased.....	1846....	Do.....	Home Squadron.
Water Witch.....	2....	Washington.....	1845....	In ordinary.....	Washington.
Massachusetts.....		Transferred.....		In commission.....	Pacific.
Gen. Taylor.....		Do.....		Tender.....	Pensacola.
Engineer.....		Purchased.....		Tender.....	Norfolk.
John Hancock.....		Boston.....	1850....	Tender.....	Boston.
<i>Store Ships.</i>					
Relief.....	6....	Philadelphia.....	1836....	In commission.....	Coast of Brazil.
Lexington.....	6....	New York.....	1825....	Do.....	Pacific.
Southampton.....	4....	Norfolk.....	1845....	Do.....	Pacific.
Supply.....	4....	Purchased.....	1846....	Do.....	Pacific.
Fredonia.....	4....	Do.....	1846....	In ordinary.....	New York.

The officers of the navy are, 68 captains, 97 commanders, 325 lieutenants, 69 surgeons, besides 34 assistant-surgeons, 64 pursers, 24 chaplains, 12 professors of mathematics, 305 passed midshipmen, 172 midshipmen, 35 masters and master's-mates, 41 boatswains, 45 gunners, 45 carpenters, 38 sail-makers, 87 engineers, 67 officers of marine corps, 10 navy agents, 14 storekeepers, 7 naval contractors, 13 agents for hemp and timber.

A Table showing the number born in each State and Foreign Country.

Born in Free States.	No.	Born in Slave States.	No.
Maine.....	57	Delaware.....	23
New Hampshire.....	36	Maryland.....	120
Vermont.....	16	District of Columbia.....	66
Massachusetts.....	110	Virginia.....	229
Rhode Island.....	26	North Carolina.....	44
Connecticut.....	41	South Carolina.....	40
New York.....	226	Georgia.....	32
New Jersey.....	64	Alabama.....	8
Pennsylvania.....	193	Mississippi.....	3
Ohio.....	33	Florida.....	8
Indiana.....	11	Louisiana.....	15
Illinois.....	4	Kentucky.....	32
Michigan.....	4	Tennessee.....	14
Iowa.....	1	Missouri.....	9
Total.....	822	Total.....	643
England.....	9	Greece.....	4
Ireland.....	18	West Indies.....	4
Scotland.....	4	South America.....	1
France.....	2	Canada.....	2
Belgium.....	2		
Sweden.....	1	Total.....	47
Total born in Free States.....			822
Total born in Slave States.....			643
Total born in foreign countries.....			47
Total not reported, or unknown.....			5
Total.....			1,517

A Table showing the time of Service.

OFFICERS.	For more than five years.	For more than ten years.	For more than 20 years.	For more than 30 years.	For more than 40 years.	For more than 50 years.
Captains	—	—	—	11	53	4
Commanders	—	—	—	89	8	—
Lieutenants	—	118	195	9	3	—
Surgeons	—	24	30	11	2	2
Passed Assist. Surgeons .	11	22	1	—	—	—
Assistant Surgeons . . .	5	1	—	—	—	—
Pursers	13	20	11	6	2	—
Chaplains	3	11	3	—	—	—
Professors of Mathematics	3	8	—	—	—	—
Masters	8	15	3	7	1	—
Passed Midshipmen . . .	8	197	—	—	—	—
Midshipmen	21	1	—	—	—	—
Boatswains	7	14	4	—	—	—
Gunners	8	16	1	1	1	—
Carpenters	4	20	2	—	—	—
Sailmakers	7	13	3	—	—	—
Marine Corps	5	21	10	10	2	—
Engineers	16	1	—	—	—	—
Total	119	502	263	144	72	6

Time unemployed by Officers of the Navy.

GRADE OF OFFICE.	Unemployed for more than 5 years and less than 10.	Unemployed for more than 10 yrs. and less than 20.	Unemployed for more than 20 yrs. and less than 30.	Unemployed for more than 30 yrs.	Waiting orders at present.
Captains	8	36	20	2	38
Commanders	17	71	9	—	46
Lieutenants	134	35	2	—	79
Surgeons	21	14	1	—	20
Passed Assist. Surgeons .	—	1	—	—	2
Assistant Surgeons . . .	—	1	—	—	5
Pursers	17	3	1	—	18
Chaplains	4	1	—	—	8
Masters	3	3	3	—	—
Total	204	165	36	2	216

In August, 1842, an Act was passed by Congress, establishing the Navy Department as it is organized at present, with Bureaus of—1. Navy Yards and Docks; 2. Construction, Equipment and Repair; 3. Provisions and Clothing; 4. Ordnance and Hydrography; 5. Of Medicine and Surgery.

THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.*

The Senate is composed of two members elected by the legislature of each State for the term of six years. Of course, the number of Senators is now 62. The Vice-President of the United States is President of the Senate. In his absence, a President *pro tempore* is chosen by the Senate.

The House of Representatives is composed of representatives from each State, in the ratio of 1 to every 70,680 of the population. The present number of members is 232; and there are two delegates, one from Oregon and one from Minnesota, who have a right to speak but not to vote. The compensation of the members is \$8, and that of the Speaker \$16 per day, during the session, and \$8 for every twenty miles' travel in going and returning.

STATE GOVERNMENTS.

A Table exhibiting the names of the Seats of Government, the periods of Elections, and Meeting of Legislatures.

STATES.	Seats of Government.	Times of holding Elections.	Times of the Meeting of the Legislatures.
Maine	Augusta	2d Monday in September	2d Wednesday in January.
N. Hampshire.....	Concord	2d Tuesday in March	1st Wednesday in June.
Vermont.....	Montpelier	1st Tuesday in September.....	2d Thursday in October.
Massachusetts.....	Boston	2d Monday in November.....	1st Wednesday in January.
Rhode Island.....	{ Providence } { Newport } 1st Wednesday in April.....	{ 1st Tuesday in May. Last Monday in October.
Connecticut	Hartf'd & N. Hav.....	1st Monday in April.....	1st Wednesday in May.
New York.....	Albany	Tu. after 1st Mon. in Nov.....	1st Tuesday in January.
New Jersey.....	Trenton.....	Tu. after 1st Mon. in Nov.....	2d Tuesday in January.
Pennsylvania.....	Harrisburg	2d Tuesday in October	1st Tuesday in January.
Delaware.....	Dover	2d Tuesday in November.....	1st Tues. in Jan., <i>biennially</i> .
Maryland.....	Annapolis	1st Wednesday in Nov.....	1st Wednesday in January.
Virginia.....	Richmond.....	4th Thursday in April	1st Monday in Dec., <i>bienn.</i>
N. Carolina.....	Raleigh.....	1st Thursday in August.....	3d Monday in Nov., <i>bienn.</i>
S. Carolina.....	Columbia	2d Monday in October	4th Monday in November.
Georgia.....	Milledgeville	1st Monday in October.....	1st Monday in Nov., <i>bienn.</i>
Florida.....	Tallahassee.....	1st Monday in October.....	1st Monday in Nov., <i>bienn.</i>
Alabama.....	Montgomery.....	1st Monday in August.....	2d Monday in Nov., <i>bienn.</i>
Mississippi.....	Jackson	1st Mon. and Tu. in Nov.....	1st Monday in Jan., <i>bienn.</i>
Louisiana.....	Baton Rouge.....	1st Monday in November.....	3d Monday in Jan., <i>bienn.</i>
Texas.....	Austin.....	1st Monday in August	December, <i>biennially</i> .
Arkansas.....	Little Rock.....	1st Monday in August	1st Monday in Jan., <i>bienn.</i>
Tennessee.....	Nashville.....	1st Thursday in August.....	1st Monday in Oct., <i>bienn.</i>
Kentucky.....	Frankfort	1st Monday in August	1st Monday in December.
Ohio.....	Columbus	2d Tuesday in October.....	1st Monday in Jan., <i>bienn.</i>
Indiana.....	Indianapolis.....	1st Monday in August	Thurs. af. 1st Mon. in Jan. <i>bi.</i>
Illinois.....	Springfield	Tu. after 1st Mon. in Nov.....	2d Monday in Jan., <i>bienn.</i>
Missouri.....	Jefferson City.....	1st Monday in August.....	Last Monday in Dec., <i>bienn.</i>
Michigan.....	Lansing	1st Tuesday in November.....	1st Monday in January.
Iowa.....	Iowa City.....	1st Monday in August	1st Monday in Dec., <i>bienn.</i>
Wisconsin.....	Madison.....	Tu. after 1st Mon. in Nov.....	1st Monday in January.
California.....	San José	Tu. after 1st Mon. in Nov.....	1st Monday in January.

* In vol. v. page 222, will be found a notice of the Government of the United States—Executive, Cabinet officers, and Judiciary.

STATISTICS OF SURNAMES.

For many years a register has been kept throughout England and Wales of the names and ages of all who are born, marry or die. The following is a list of the fifty most common names, and the numbers belonging to each, for the year ending on the 1st day of July 1838.

Jones, 13,429; Smith, 12,627; Williams, 8,743; Taylor, 6,440; Davies, 5,589; Brown, 5,585; Thomas, 5,278; Evans, 4,930; Roberts, 4,199; Johnson, 3,743; Robinson, 3,555; Wilson, 3,399; Wright, 3,299; Hall, 3,227; Hughes, 3,180; Wood, 3,177; Walker, 3,148; Lewis, 3,134; Green, 3,112; Edwards, 3,097; White, 3,087; Jackson, 3,040; Turner, 2,908; Thompson, 2,874; Hill, 2,856; Harris, 2,771; Cooper, 2,693; Clark, 2,683; Davis, 2,661; Harrison, 2,502; Baker, 2,385; Ward, 2,318; Morris, 2,299; Morgan, 2,296; Martin, 2,272; James, 2,209; King, 2,156; Clarke, 2,145; Cook, 2,135; Allen, 2,116; Price, 2,090; Phillips, 1,997; Parker, 1,989; Moore, 1,985; Watson, 1,908; Carter, 1,882; Richardson, 1,817; Lee, 1,815; Griffiths, 1,801; Shaw, 1,754.

From this list it appears that the immortal family of the Smiths must "hide their diminished heads" before their more numerous rivals the Joneses. Two facts strike us, in looking over these statistics, the great numerical strength of Welsh names, and the entire absence of the Norman. The Norman conquest would seem to have had little influence on English blood, whatever it may have exerted on character and institutions; on the other hand, the Welsh names, such as Jones, Williams, Davies, Davis, Evans, Roberts, Hughes, Edwards, Morgan, Price, &c., form fully one-third of the whole number. The opinion of Hume, that the Anglo-Saxons exterminated the Britons from the territories they subdued, is denied by more recent historians; and considering the immense influx from Wales in subsequent times, it becomes a question in English Ethnology, whether the old Briton or the German, is now the larger element in the present population.

MORTALITY AT DIFFERENT AGES AND PERIODS OF THE YEAR.

The following statistics are taken from an elaborate work on Social Physics, by M. Quetelet, of Brussels. They exhibit the average per centage of deaths, during the various months of the year, from birth till extreme old age:

Months.	First months.	2 to 3 years.	8 to 12 years.	25 to 30 years.	50 to 65 years.	90 years and upwards.
January . .	1.39	1.22	1.08	1.05	1.30	1.58
February . .	1.28	1.13	1.06	1.04	1.22	1.48
March . . .	1.21	1.30	1.27	1.11	1.11	1.25
April . . .	1.02	1.27	1.34	1.06	1.02	0.96
May	0.93	1.12	1.21	1.02	0.93	0.84
June	0.83	0.94	0.99	1.02	0.85	0.75
July	0.78	0.82	0.88	0.91	0.77	0.64
August . . .	0.79	0.73	0.82	0.96	0.85	0.66
September .	0.86	0.76	0.81	0.95	0.89	0.76
October . . .	0.91	0.78	0.76	0.93	0.90	0.74
November . .	0.93	0.91	0.80	0.97	1.00	1.03
December . .	1.07	1.01	0.96	0.97	1.15	1.24

The preceding table leads to conclusions very wide of popular opinions. For we find that the mortality is greatest in the cold, and least in the warm months, and this holds true of persons of all ages. In cities, there is sometimes a great mortality among children, but this seldom extends to the country; and it arises from the foul air caused by the increased heat and improper habits.

DURATION OF LIFE IN EUROPE.*

The average duration of life at Rome, among citizens, from the time of Servius Tullius to that of Justinian, was about	30 years
Mean duration of the corresponding class in Britain, at the present day, about	50 "
Mean duration of life at Geneva, from 1560 to 1600	21 $\frac{1}{6}$ "
" " " " 1600 to 1700	25 $\frac{3}{4}$ "
" " " " 1701 to 1760	32 $\frac{3}{4}$ "
" " " " in 1833	45 $\frac{5}{12}$ "

Registers have been regularly kept at Geneva, since the year 1560, so that the preceding statistics at that city may be relied on for perfect accuracy.

The annual mortality of Paris, in the 14th century, was	1 in 16
" " of the poorest class in 1840	1 in 24
" " Russia in 1840	1 in 27
" " Britain "	1 in 43,7
" " Geneva in 16th century	1 in 25
" " " 18th "	1 in 34
" " " 1840 "	1 in 46,92

* In the census abstract on a preceding page, will be found the calculations of the average mortality in the United States.

The average duration of life among the English peerage at the age of 20 is	38
In all England at that age the average duration of other lives is	40 years.
In the County of Surrey	42 "
In London	36 "
In Liverpool	33 "

THE PARIS DEAD-HOUSE.

The *Morgue*, or Dead-house of the City of Paris, is the place where the bodies of all persons found dead, are laid, in order to be recognized by their friends or acquaintances. They are mostly suicides, and persons accidentally drowned or murdered. It is remarkable that the number of such persons is nearly constant, from year to year.

The following are the figures for the last two years:—

	1850.	1851.
Males	254	257
Females	38	52
Newborn infants	26	27
Fœtus	46	44
Parts of bodies	7	4
	<hr/> 371	<hr/> 384

The suicides in 1850 were 164, and in 1851, 164! In Paris, in 1850, 162 bodies were found in the Seine, and in 1851, 163 were found there. Deaths by hanging were increased the last year disproportionably; but suffocation by charcoal has decreased. Six men shot themselves in 1850, and five in 1851. Women rarely blow out their brains. Men fall out of windows less than they did; but women fall out more. Poisoning has declined; but sudden deaths in the streets from apoplexy, disease of the heart, &c., have notably augmented.

SUICIDES IN FRANCE.

The suicides in all France, including Paris, for the year 1843, are stated in the *Revue Médicale* to be as follows:—

Whole number	3020
Females (about 24 per cent.)	729
Under sixteen years of age	15
Octogenarians	20

Septuagenarians	170
Sexagenarians	384
By drowning	1098
Fire-arms	450
Hanging or strangling	954

The greatest number of cases occurred in the month of May.

PREMATURE INTERMENTS PREVENTED IN FRANCE.

(From the *Constitutionnel*.)

The following statistics relate to France, from 1833 to 1846, a period of thirteen years.

The whole number of cases of premature interment prevented by fortuitous circumstances, amounted to 94. Thirty-five awoke of themselves from their lethargy, when the funeral ceremony was about to take place; 13 recovered in consequence of the affectionate care of their families; 7 recovered in consequence of the fall of the coffin in which they were placed; 9 owed their recovery to wounds inflicted by the needle in sewing their winding-sheet; 5 to the sense of suffocation they experienced in their coffin; 19 to their interments having been delayed by fortuitous events; and 6 to their interment having been delayed in consequence of doubts entertained of their death.

These facts indicate that friends should be careful of assuming that persons are dead, without satisfactory evidence. It is much more difficult to determine when a person is really dead, than is generally supposed.

RELATIVE WEIGHTS AND SIZES OF THE BRAINS.

THE following determinations regarding the human brain were made by M. Bourgery, of Paris.

Mean weight of the encephalon, or whole brain	.	.	20,393.5	grs. Troy.
“ “ hemispheres, or brain proper	.	.	16,940.46	“
“ “ cerebellum, or little brain	.	.	2,176.7	“
“ “ cephalic prolongation of the cerebro-spinal axis, viz.:	.	.		
Thalami optici and corpora striata	.	.	879.9	“
Medulla oblongata and pons varolii	.	.	432.3	“
Total	.	.	1,312.2	“
Mean weight of the spinal cord	.	.	710.1	“

Hence it appears that the weight of the hemispheres is *four* times that of the rest of the cerebro-spinal mass, *nine* times that of the cerebellum, *thirteen* times that of the cephalic stem of the spinal cord, and *twenty-four* times that of the spinal cord.

The average weight of the whole brain in man, at adult age, compared to that of his body, is about 1 to 36.* This is a larger proportion than that which it holds in most other animals. The average of mammalia is stated by M. Leuret at 1 to 186, of birds 1 to 212, of reptiles 1 to 1,321, and of fishes 1 to 5,668.† Thus it appears that the cephalic prolongation of the spinal cord in man is more than twice as heavy, in proportion to the weight of his body, as the whole brain of reptiles, and ten times as heavy as in fishes. There are some exceptions to these general rules, however. Thus, the brain of the field-mouse is to that of its body as 1 to 31, and that of the goldfinch as 1 to 24, while in the canary bird it is as 1 to 14, and in the blue-headed tit as 1 to 12. In these cases, however, the hemispheres form a much smaller proportion of the whole brain than they do in man. In the dolphin the proportions run from one twenty-fifth to one sixteenth. In the elephant the proportion is 1 to 500, which is very high, considering the animal's enormous weight. In the horse the proportion is about the same as in the elephant; in the ass, it is about 1 to 150. From such facts we may infer that there is no connection between the proportional weight of the brain and the degree of intelligence.

The two following tables are taken from a valuable work by M. Serres, of Paris, on the "Comparative Anatomy of the Brain." The first gives the diameter of the spinal cord at the second cervical vertebra. The two following columns give the transverse and antero-posterior diameters of the cerebellum, the dimensions being stated in hundred-thousandths of a French metre, which is about 39 inches of our measure. The fourth column gives, in round numbers, the proportions of the two diameters of the cerebellum to that of the spinal cord, which is reckoned unity, or 1. The second table exhibits the three diameters of the cerebrum, and the diameter of the spinal cord, and the last three columns exhibit the proportions to the spinal cord, as before.

* At the age of six the proportion is much higher, being as 1 to 22.

† It appears from other sources, however, that the average of birds and fishes is considerably higher; 1 to 2,000 would be much nearer the real average for the latter, and 1 to 100 in the former.

Table showing the Dimensions of the Cerebellum in various Animals.

MAMMALIA.	Diam. of Spinal Cord at 2d cervical vertebra.	Transverse Diameter.	Antero-posterior Diameter.	Proportions.
Man	1,100	12,000	6,000	11—5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Simia Rubra	900	4,500	2,443	5—2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bear	1,300	5,900	3,500	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Dog	1,100	4,200	2,525	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ —2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Dromedary	1,900	7,100	4,600	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ —2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Kangaroo	1,200	3,800	2,600	3 $\frac{1}{6}$ —2 $\frac{1}{6}$
BIRDS.				
Falcon	400	1,350	1,100	3 $\frac{1}{3}$ —2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Swallow	175	500	600	3—3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Turkey	500	1,350	1,600	2 $\frac{2}{3}$ —2 $\frac{1}{5}$
Ostrich	700	1,750	2,500	2 $\frac{1}{3}$ —3 $\frac{1}{2}$
REPTILES.				
Crocodile	300	500	400	1 $\frac{2}{3}$ —1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Frog	300	300	200	1— $\frac{2}{3}$
FISHES.				
Shark	700	1,700	3,100	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ —4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Cod	575	1,350	1,700	2 $\frac{1}{3}$ —3
Turbot	500	750	900	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ —1 $\frac{4}{5}$
Lamprey	275	225	100	$\frac{4}{5}$ — $\frac{3}{8}$

Table showing the Dimensions of the Cerebrum in various Animals.

MAMMALIA.	Diam. of Spinal Cord.	Dimensions of Cerebrum.			Proportional Dimensions.		
		Anter-post.	Transv.	Vertical.			
Man	1,100	17,000	7,500	9,000	1—15 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—6 $\frac{5}{6}$	1—8 $\frac{1}{5}$
Dolphin	1,000	9,500	5,850	8,200	1—9 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—5 $\frac{4}{5}$	1—8 $\frac{1}{5}$
Mandril	950	8,100	3,200	4,900	1—8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—3 $\frac{1}{3}$	1—5
Tiger	1,600	9,400	4,250	6,400	1—5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1—2 $\frac{5}{8}$	1—4
Dromedary	1,900	10,500	5,050	5,800	1—5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—2 $\frac{5}{8}$	1—3
Kangaroo	1,200	5,300	2,350	3,800	1—4 $\frac{2}{5}$	1—2	1—3 $\frac{1}{6}$
BIRDS.							
Vulture	800	3,200	2,200	1,550	1—4	1—2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1—2
Falcon	500	1,900	1,450	1,200	1—3 $\frac{4}{5}$	1—3	1—2 $\frac{2}{5}$
Swallow	175	1,000	600	550	1—5 $\frac{5}{7}$	1—3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—3 $\frac{1}{7}$
Magpie	450	2,000	1,400	1,200	1—4 $\frac{2}{5}$	1—3	1—2 $\frac{2}{3}$
Turkey	500	1,750	1,250	1,200	1—3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—2 $\frac{2}{5}$
Parroquet	400	2,900	1,400	1,700	1—7 $\frac{1}{4}$	1—3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—4 $\frac{1}{4}$
REPTILES.							
Tortoise	300	1,600	500		1—5 $\frac{1}{3}$	1—1 $\frac{2}{3}$	
Crocodile	300	800	500		1—2 $\frac{2}{5}$	1—1 $\frac{2}{5}$	
Viper	200	600	300		1—2	1—1 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Frog	300	500	400		1—1 $\frac{2}{5}$	1—1 $\frac{1}{3}$	
FISHES.							
Shark	710	2,300	1,100		1—3 $\frac{1}{3}$	1—1 $\frac{1}{4}$	
Cod	575	725	800		1—1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1—1 $\frac{2}{5}$	
Lamprey	275	400	300		1—1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1—1 $\frac{1}{4}$	
Angler	400	400	300		1—1	1— $\frac{3}{4}$	

A glance over the preceding statistics will show that the comparative size of the cerebellum in man is greater than that of the cerebrum. In the former respect he far transcends any of the lower animals, while in the latter the difference is not so striking. Thus, the height of the dolphin's brain is quite equal to that of man, and it is not much inferior in breadth; the chief difference lies in the much greater depth, or length, of the human brain from front to rear; and in this respect it exhibits a very striking superiority. This seems to indicate that the common opinion about "long-headedness" being connected with superior talents may have some foundation in fact, while it completely explodes the notion that a high head is connected with mental superiority. But when we compare the actual superiority of man over the most intelligent of the lower animals, we must infer that this is owing to a difference in the mind, and not merely in the brain.

AMERICAN PRESIDENTS.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, first President of the United States, for the first and second terms, 1789—1797, was born in Westmoreland county, Va., Feb. 22, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon, Dec. 14, 1799, aged 67 years 9 months 21 days. He was the son of Augustine Washington, by Mary Ball, his second wife. He was a planter: Commander of the American Army during the Revolution, and was twice unanimously elected President of the United States. He married Jan. 6, 1759, Martha, daughter of John Danbridge, and widow of Daniel P. Custis, of New Kent county, Va. She died May 22, 1802, aged 70 years. Washington died without issue.

JOHN ADAMS, second President of the United States, for the third term, 1797—1801, was born in Quincy, Mass, Oct. 30, 1735, and died in his native town, July 4, 1826, aged 90 years, 8 months, 4 days. He was the son of John Adams and Susanna Boylston; graduated in 1755; a lawyer and distinguished leader in the American Revolution. Vice President, 1789—1797. He married, Feb. 24, 1764, Abigail, daughter of Rev. Wm. Smith, of Weymouth. She died Oct. 28, 1818, aged 74. Their children were: 1, Abigail, born July 14, 1765; 2, John Quincy, born July 11, 1767; 3, Susanna, born Dec. 28, 1768; 4, Charles; 5, Thomas Boylston, born Sept. 15, 1771.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, third President of the United States, for the fourth and fifth terms, 1801—1809, was born in Shadwell, Albermarle county, Va., April 2, 1743, and died at Monticello,

Orange county, Va., July 4, 1826, aged 83 years, 3 months, 2 days. He was the son of Peter Jefferson and Jane Randolph, was educated a lawyer, and was the author of the Declaration of Independence. He married, Jan. 1, 1772, Martha Skelton, widow of Bathurst Skelton, and daughter of John Wayles. She died in 1782, leaving two daughters, one of whom died unmarried, the other married Mr. Randolph, whose son, Thomas Jefferson Randolph, compiled his memoir and writings.

JAMES MADISON, fourth President of the United States, for the sixth and seventh terms, 1809—1817, was born near Port Royal, Va., March 16, 1751, and died at Montpelier, Orange county, Va., June 28, 1836, aged 85 years, three months, 12 days. He was the son of James Madison, by his wife Nelly Conway, of Orange county; graduated at Princeton College, N. J., 1771, and held many important offices besides President. He married in 1794, Dolly Payne, the widow of Mr. Tood, a lawyer of Philadelphia. She was born May 20, 1767, and died in Washington, July 12, 1849, aged 82 years, 1 month, 22 days. She left a son, Mr. Payne Tood, by her first husband, but had no issue by Mr. Madison.

JAMES MONROE, fifth President of the United States, for the eighth and ninth terms, 1817—1825, was born on the paternal estate in Westmoreland county, Va., April 2, 1759, and died in the city of New York, July 4, 1831, aged 72 years, 3 months, 2 days. He was the son of Spence Monroe and Elizabeth Jones. He graduated at William and Mary College, in 1776, and was by profession a lawyer. At his second election, as President, he received every electoral vote, excepting one from New Hampshire, given for J. Quincy Adams. He married in 1786, Miss Kortright, of New York, by whom he had two daughters, one of whom married Mr. Hale, of Va., the other L. S. Gosvener, Esq., of New York.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, sixth President of the United States, for the tenth term, 1825—1829, was born in Quincy, Mass., July 11, 1767, and died at the Capitol in Washington, Feb. 23, 1848, aged 80 years, 7 months, 12 days. He was the son of John Adams and Abigail Smith, graduated at Harvard College, 1787; studied law, but devoted most of his life to public affairs. He married July 26, 1797, Louisa Catherine Johnson, daughter of Joshua Johnson, a citizen of Maryland, though at the time of her birth, Feb. 12, 1775, a resident of London. By her, who still survives, he had three children; George Washington, died unmarried; John, died Oct. 23, 1834, and Charles Francis.

ANDREW JACKSON, seventh President of the United States, for the eleventh and twelfth terms, 1829—1837, was born in War-saw, South Carolina, March 15, 1767, and died at the Hermitage,

near Nashville, Tenn., June 8, 1845, aged 78 years, 2 months, 23 days. He was the son of Andrew Jackson and Elizabeth Hutchinson, natives of Ireland, and of Scotch descent. He was educated a lawyer, and admitted to practice in North Carolina, 1786; removed to Nashville, 1788; was a Representative and a Senator in Congress; spent a considerable portion of his life in the military profession, and gained a great celebrity at the battle of New Orleans, January 8, 1815. He married, but died without issue.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, eighth President of the United States, for the thirteenth term, 1837—1841, was born in Kinderhook, Columbia county, N. Y., December 5, 1782, and is still living. He was the son of Abraham Van Buren and Maria Goes, both of respectable families of Dutch descent, living on the Hudson. He was educated a lawyer, without having graduated at any college. He has held many public offices in the gift of his native State and nation, besides those of President and Vice President of the United States. He married in 1806, Hannah Goes, of Columbia county, who died in 1818. By her he had four sons.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, ninth President of the United States, elected for the fourteenth term, 1841—1845, was born in Berkley, Charles county, Va., February 9, 1773; and died in Washington, while in office, April 4, 1841, aged 68 years, 1 month, 23 days. He was the son of Benjamin Harrison, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and Miss Bassett. He was a military General, Governor, Representative, and Senator in Congress. He was a planter at North Bend, Ohio. He married, in 1795, a daughter of John Cleaves Symms, founder of the Miami Settlement, by whom he had five sons and four daughters. Four sons and one daughter died before their father.

JOHN TYLER, tenth President of the United States, for the fourteenth term, 1841—1845, elected Vice President, but served as President, the same term, after the 4th April, 1841, in place of HARRISON, who had died. He was born in Charles City county, Va., March 29, 1790, and is still living near Williamsburg, Va. He was the second son of Judge John Tyler; graduated at William and Mary College, and was educated a lawyer. He married first, in 1813, Letitia Christian, of New Kent county, Va., who died at Washington, September 10, 1842, leaving there three sons and daughters; and secondly, June 26, 1844, Julia Gardner, daughter of David Gardner, of New York.

JAMES KNOX POLK, eleventh President of the United States, for the fifteenth term, 1845—1849, was born in Mecklenburg, N. C., November 2, 1795, and died at Nashville, Tenn., June 15th, 1849, aged 53 years, 7 months, 13 days. He was the

oldest of 10 children, and graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1818; studied law, and settled in Nashville. He was elected, in 1823, member of the State Legislature, and, in 1825, a member of Congress; in which office he continued many years. He was Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1835—1840, and afterwards two years Governor of Tennessee. He married a lady of Tennessee, but died without issue.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, twelfth President of the United States, for the sixteenth term, 1849—1853, was born in Virginia, November 24, 1784, and died at Washington, July 9, 1850, aged 65 years. His parents removed to Kentucky, where many of their connections now reside. He has spent a large portion of his life in the military profession. He married a lady of Virginia, and has had five children: one of them died in early life. His oldest daughter married Dr. Wood, surgeon in the army; Sarah Knox, his second daughter, married Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, and died soon after; Elizabeth married Mr. Bliss, his private secretary; Richard, his only son, lives on his father's plantation in Baton Rouge, La.

MILLARD FILLMORE, who, by the death of President Taylor, became President of the United States, is the second Vice President who has been raised to the Chief Magistracy by the death of the President. He was born at what is now called Summer Hill, Cayuga county, N. Y., January 7, 1800, and is now, consequently, in the 54th year of his age. His father moved from Bennington, Vt., and is a plain farmer. Mr. Fillmore enjoyed in youth only the common advantages of a farmer's son, but by study and industry has gradually raised himself to distinction as a public man.

ACCOUNT OF THE UNITED STATES ARMORY AT SPRINGFIELD, MASS.*

As this establishment is one of a general and national interest, we propose to enter into some details concerning it which would not be called for in the notice of a concern possessing only a local and limited importance. Its extent and efficiency, and the liberal expenditures which have made it what it is—one of the most prolific manufactories of arms and capacious arsenals in the world—are legitimate subjects of national pride. Accordingly, it has been the resort of sightseers and travellers, and constitutes one of the principal attractions of our beautiful locality; and at no

* From "*The Springfield Republican.*"

public establishment in the United States can the eye be gratified with the sight of so much beautiful and ingenious machinery; so large, skilful, and well paid a company of laborers, such finely laid out and well-kept grounds, and so thoroughly and orderly a system of operations as here.

The arsenal, the offices, and the principal manufacturing and storing buildings of the armory, are located on Springfield Hill, and overlook the Connecticut Valley at a charming elevation. The heavier operations of the concern are effected at three localities on Mill River, known as the Upper, Middle, and Lower Water Shops. The land owned on the Hill by the government, amounts to 72 acres and 2 rods; at the Upper and Middle Water Shops, 19 acres and 56 rods; at the Lower Water Shops, 10 acres and 102 rods—total land owned by the government in town, 102 acres and 10 rods. The principal building is the new arsenal. This is 200 feet long by 70 wide. Its height is 50 feet, which is divided into three stories, each story being sufficiently large to contain 100,000 muskets. The front is finished by a pediment of 70 feet by 12; and one of the rooms formed by the pediment it is designed to convert into an exhibition-room of old and curious arms, and relics appropriate to the establishment. The tower is 89 feet high and 29 feet square, the flag-staff rising 60 feet above the deck of the tower. Another large building is the new brick structure for storing lumber and musket stocks. This is 400 feet long, 55 feet wide, and two stories high. Here a stock of four years in musket stocks is constantly kept, that the timber may be properly seasoned. The principal of the three old arsenals is 120 by 40 feet on the ground, and three stories high; and the other two are respectively two stories high, and in their other dimensions 100 feet by 34. The other principal buildings are the workshops, and, though extensive, they call for no description. There are located on the Hill, ten dwelling-houses, which are owned by the government; at the Upper Water Shops, 2; at the Middle, 2; and Lower, 2,—total dwelling-houses, 16.

The total expenditures of the armory for the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1851, were \$271,308 33. Of this sum \$179,216 29 were paid out for labor alone. To show the extent and variety of the stock and materials used, we give the items consumed last year:—Refined iron, 446,628 pounds; cast iron, 41,288 do.; inferior iron, 3,677 do.; wire iron, 1,079 do.; cast steel, 63,146 do.; shear steel, 651 do.; nails, 2,326 do.; wood screws, 163 gross; sand paper, 326 quires; sulphuric acid, 2,823 pounds; boards and plank, 145,013 feet; timber, 32,204 do.; bricks, 20,000; leather, 1,788 pounds; thong, 31 skins; sperm and whale oil, 2,380 gallons; assorted files, 8,613; grindstones, 52,634 pounds; charcoal, 46,598

bushels; anthracite coal, 2,438,924 pounds; pit coal, 52,700 do.; fire-stone, 4,480 do.; furnace clay, 134 bushels; and wood, 200 (2 feet) cords.

The result of the operations of last year, is as follows:—

Percussion muskets complete	21,000
Percussion musketoons complete	2,000
Muskets altered from flint to percussion	57,272
Extra cones, for issue with muskets	119,757
Compound screwdrivers for issue with do.	93,908
Percussion hammers (for other posts)	41,682
Arm chests and packing boxes	295
Tilt hammers for welding barrels	2
Components of muskets for other posts, equal percussion muskets	55

Col. Ripley, the commanding officer at the armory, received an order to alter the flint-lock muskets to percussion, if practicable, at a cost not exceeding \$1 per musket. This work was commenced in July, 1849, and the whole number, 113,406, were completed by February, 1851, at a cost of 50½ cents each. At the close of the year there were on hand a grand total of 215,950 muskets.

The largest number of men employed during any one month last year was 431; the smallest, 320—average number per month, 381½. The average pay of these men, making no account of lost time, and reckoning in all, from the highest to the lowest, was \$40 per month.

In the month of June, just past, the division of office labor and laborers, were as follows:—

On Salaries or Wages.—One superintendent, one master armorer, one military storekeeper, four clerks, eleven inspectors, sixteen machinists.

At Piecework.—Eighteen barrel forgers, seven lock forgers, eight bayonet forgers, two ramrod forgers, ten mounting forgers, one appendage forger, one iron maker, nine assistant forgers, six annealers, fourteen borers, twenty-six miners, eleven drillers, three turners, three grinders, eleven barrel filers, twenty-four lock filers, six bayonet filers, fourteen mounting filers, three appendage filers, sixteen stockers, one barrel finisher, three mounting finishers, three lock finishers, one arm finisher, two appendage finishers.

Jobbers.—Five smiths, two filers, nineteen carpenters, one mason, and thirty-six laborers, all on wages.

The above give a total of 320 men, employed in June, which is the smallest number employed in any month during the year, with the exception of May, when the number was the same.

At the Lower Water Shops there is now comparatively little bus-

iness done. The work formerly done here was some years since removed to the Hill for convenience, and the introduction of a steam engine in the Hill buildings was made to do the work formerly done by water-power here. A principal part of these shops and their water-power are leased to Messrs. Ingersoll, Doolittle & Co., and constitute the establishment known as the Massasoit Flour Mills. The government, however, carry on a rolling mill here, where every scrap of iron, iron filings, &c., produced in the process of manufacture, is melted and rolled into stock to be reconsumed, so that not a pound of iron is thrown away or sold at less than its value. This rolling mill is furnished with a complete set of machinery for rolling and slitting iron, two tilt-hammers, one cutting shears for bars, and three water wheels, as the driving power.

At the Middle Water Shops, the process of forging barrels, ramrods, and bayonets, is carried on. There are here eighteen tilt-hammers, carried by twelve water-wheels. These shops, with the Lower, employ thirty-four men. A new invention has just been completed here, and one which will be of great importance to every large forging establishment in the country. The old method of driving a tilt-hammer is by a water-wheel to each hammer, or to every two hammers. The necessity of compelling this arises from the fact that if the hammer was driven by a belt from a regular moving power, the speed of the hammer could not be increased or decreased suddenly at will. The new invention consists of a loose driving belt—so loose, that when it is not tightened by bearing against it, the driving drum has no action upon it. A pulley is attached to a compound lever half-way between the drum and the pulley, where the power is applied to the hammer, and by acting upon the lever, the pulley presses upon the belt, until it is so far tightened as to drive the hammer at the utmost speed of the drum. When a smaller speed is required, the lever is partially released, allowing the belt to slip, and in this manner, by increasing or diminishing the tension of the belt, any required speed is attained. The result of this simple and beautiful invention, is that a thousand tilt-hammers, if necessary, may be driven by one water-wheel, or by a steam engine.

At the Upper Water Shops there are fifty-seven men employed. Here the boring, turning, grinding, and polishing of barrels, ramrods, and bayonets, are effected, and also the tempering and polishing of the lock-work. The machinery in these shops consists of thirteen boring banks, nine turning engines, seven large grindstones, four turning lathes, ten milling machines, two barrel polishing machines, one for buffing bayonets, two screw cutting machines, one punching press, one wood planer, one circular saw,

one machine for splitting leather, and all are driven by four water-wheels. The polishing shop, and the shop on the south side of the stream have been condemned, and are to be rebuilt. We noticed, in the polishing room, a most ingenious contrivance, of comparatively recent introduction, for sparing the lungs and lives of those who would otherwise live (or die) in a constant atmosphere of emery dust. A long box runs the length of the room, by the side of which are stationed the polishing wheels. Tubes with mouths opening upon each wheel proceed from this long box. In the room below, a blower is arranged in such connection with the long box as to exhaust the air within it, and, of course, there is a strong current of air passing from each wheel into its appropriate tube. The consequence is that all the dust of the room is drawn into the box, and delivered out of doors in a constant cloud.

The filling shop is located on the hill, and employs ninety-three men; a larger number than are engaged in any other department. The machinery in this department consists of one boring bank, one turning lathe, two turning engines, forty-five milling machines, three machines for cutting screws, one for tapping cone seats, three for drilling and finishing cones, (the part of the lock receiving the percussion cap,) two for checking hammers, eleven drill presses, one punching press, two machines for straightening hammers, and two for grinding cutting mills.

There are thirty-one men employed in the machine shop, and it is here that the machinery and the principal instruments of the manufacture for the other departments are made. The machinery of this department, as well as that of all the other shops located on the hill, is driven by a double engine of thirty horse power, manufactured by Tufts, in Boston. This engine is one of the most perfect and beautiful ever built in the United States, and from its exquisitely perfect operation and high finish, is always a prominent object of attraction to all visitors. The machinery of this department does not vary materially from that of all first-class machine shops. It consists of one cutting engine, nine turning lathes, two milling machines, one machine for shaving "bridles," five planing machines, four machines for grooving, pointing, sawing, and planing plank, one for making armchests, one for making packing for muskets, one for splitting leather, one for sawing tenons, one for cutting bolts, four punching presses, three drill presses, five turning engines, one straightening machine, and one slitting machine.

The most beautiful machinery in the whole establishment is that in the stocking-room. The machinery here is operated by twenty men, and consists of fourteen machines, which would be best de-

scribed by simply mentioning the work that they perform. Into this department the stocks come, in the form of blanks. They are rough forms of gun blocks, sawed out of black walnut plank. They first pass through the widely celebrated Blanchard turning machine, which turns the form roughly in the shape required, and are then passed from one machine to another, in rapid succession, receiving every depression for the reception of the lock and mounting, the grooving for the breech pin, barrel, and ramrod, holes for the reception of screws, turning of screws, &c., until the stock is complete. All this irregular mortising, boring, &c., is effected with the most unerring precision, and every piece of the lock and mounting, fits into its appropriate place in the most perfect manner. The machinery here is absolutely poetical, both in structure and operation. It is pregnant with intelligence, rolls out its rhymes in beautiful measure, and sings of human ingenuity, and the almost unlimited control of the human intellect over brute matter and the natural forces, with an eloquence which none but a clod of humanity can listen to without emotion. The inventor of a majority of these machines, is Mr. Cyrus Buckland, a gentleman of eminent mechanical genius, long connected with the armory.

The manufacture of a single musket, is effected by four hundred different operations, and the majority of the men employed, engage in only one of the operations. A larger number were manufactured last year than any year previous, and a calculation based upon the number turned out shows, that throughout the year, of 313 working days, of ten hours each, a musket was completed every eight minutes and fifty-six seconds. The various parts of the musket pass, during their manufacture, through the hands of inspectors, who, with their gauges, determine the exact dimensions of every piece, and reject every one that is not exactly what is required. Thus, a hundred thousand muskets might be taken to pieces, and thrown promiscuously into a pile, and the whole taken up and put together again without the mis-fit of a single component to its appropriate place. Thus, too, when the arms are in use, there is never need of sending them to the armory for repairs. Hammers, screw, springs, &c., furnished from the armory as extras, will take the place of any damaged part, precisely as if they were made for the arms to be repaired.

The process of manufacturing the musket barrel is one of the most important and difficult in the whole range of the armory operations, and one which is guarded with multiplied tests, at every step of its progress, from the bar to the finished tube. The bar, which is of the best Salisbury and Ancrom refined iron, is first cut into lengths, weighing $10\frac{3}{4}$ pounds each. These are rolled into shapes, and then the edges rolled up, lapped upon each

other, and welded. They are then inspected, and the imperfect ones rejected. As they pass along through turning, boring, and grinding, they are subjected to inspection at each step, and the workmen are held responsible for the full value of any barrel they may spoil, at the stage in which it is spoiled, and the amount is deducted from their earnings; and we may say here that the same course is adopted in regard to every component of the musket. The barrel having been reduced to the dimensions required for proof (by powder), which dimensions are three hundredths of an inch greater in the exterior diameter of the barrel, and three hundredths of an inch less in the diameter of the bore, than the finished barrel, leaving an ounce and a half to be worked from each barrel in finishing; it is then subjected to the powder test. Fifty-five barrels are usually loaded and discharged at the same time, in a building made for this purpose. Each barrel is discharged twice, the first charge consisting of one-eighteenth of a pound of powder, one ball, and two wads, each wad occupying three-fourths of an inch of the bore, and each ball weighing one-fifteenth of a pound. The second charge consists of one-twenty-second of a pound of powder, one ball, and two wads, and each charge is well rammed. These barrels are laid on a cast iron grooved bed, and the balls are discharged into a bank of clay, which is occasionally washed for the lead it contains.

The inspection of the barrels is so rigid before they come to the proof, that very few of them burst. After proof, they are again inspected, as before, to see that there are no ring-bones, cinder-holes, flaws, or cracks, or defects of any kind, that will not disappear in the finishing.

The number of condemned barrels in the last year's operations, was, for defective workmanship, 451, and for defective material, 5,323. Of these, 183 of the first class were condemned before reaching the stage of proving, and 1,971 of the last. In proving, 251 were condemned for workmanship, and 1,815 for material. In the whole number of barrels proved, only 142 burst, and an instance of the barrel bursting at the second discharge has not been known for several years. Between this stage and the finishing of the barrel, 17 were condemned for workmanship, and 1,537 for material. Thus, in making 21,000 muskets, only 454 barrels were spoiled by the workmen, and the value deducted from their earnings, while 5,323 were a loss to the government from imperfect material.

The smallest piece-value of a component of a musket, is one mill; the highest, \$3 50.

The following is the weight of a musket, in detail and total, expressed in pounds and hundredths of a pound:—

Weight of barrel	4.25
Weight of locks and side screws	0 85
Weight of bayonet	0 68
Weight of musket without bayonet	9.14
Weight of musket complete	9,82

It will thus be seen that a complete percussion musket weighs ten pounds, lacking eighteen hundredths. This weight is less than that of the old flint muskets.

The exact cost of a single musket, of the number manufactured last year, cannot be stated, the inventory being uncompleted, but the cost in the year 1850 was \$9 03½. The cost for the last year will be less. In ten years, the cost of manufacture per musket has been reduced nearly one half, it being in 1841, \$17 44.

The exquisite order and neatness which reign throughout the whole establishment, are always subjects of remark to those who visit it; and the perfect system of accounts by which every item of stock is followed and checked in its passage from the hands of the storekeeper to its final and perfect transformation into the finished arms, is enough to beatify one whose organ of order is dominant in his cerebral development. This intimate system of accounts is as prevalent in every other department as in that of stock, and is necessary in the making up of the quarterly returns to the department.

ORIGINAL AND SELECTED MISCELLANY.

(For the Register.)

THE PROGRESS OF ASTRONOMY.

PART I.—ANCIENT AND MIDDLE-AGE ASTRONOMY.

SECTION I.

Origin of Astronomy—First cultivated by the Chaldeans, and afterwards by the Egyptians—Length of the Year—Egyptian Calendar—Sothic period—Greek Calendar—Metonic Cycle—Improved by Calippus—Roman Calendar—Various changes made in it—Reformed by order of Julius Cæsar—Subsequent changes—It superseded all other modes of reckoning throughout Europe.

THE heavenly bodies so readily attract the attention of mankind, that they were noticed, with some degree of care, from the earliest times. Besides the interest excited by their appearance, it was necessary to observe their motions, in order to ascertain the proper times for performing the labors of the field, and making suitable provision for flocks and herds. When the Pleiades appeared in the west after sunset, it was time to plough; and when they rose in the east early in the evening, it was autumn. Another thing which drew attention to the heavenly bodies, was the opinion which prevailed at a very early period, that they controlled, not only the destinies of men, but even the growth of plants. The apparent influence of the sun, and the great regularity in the motions of the fixed stars, induced men to think them divine; and hence they were observed with care.

The Chaldeans, led by their clear skies and pastoral habits, appear to have been the first people who made any great progress in classifying celestial phenomena. After these followed the Egyptians, from whom the Phenicians probably borrowed the little they knew of the subject. The Sun and Moon were first observed with any degree of attention, because they are by far the most conspicuous. The Moon was soon found to run through all its phases, from new till change, in about 30 days; and hence the *month*, or *moon's age*, (in Saxon, *Mon-ath*.) The Sun also was found to change its place among the fixed stars: those which appeared in the west after sunset, after a while appeared in the

east before sunrise, as if this luminary had moved from west to east. By following these apparent changes of position, it was found that the Sun completed the circuit of the ecliptic, or circle of this apparent motion, and returned to the point whence it set out, in about twelve months, in which period the cycle of the seasons was completed. By this means, it was found that the year consisted of about 360 days. More continued and accurate observation showed that it consisted of about 365 days; and the honor of this discovery was claimed by the Egyptians. As the stars could not be seen when very near the sun, the length of the year was ascertained by noticing the time when a certain star near the ecliptic was seen to rise immediately after sunset, and counting from this until it occupied the same position with respect to the sun next year.

Another method was, ascertaining the time of the solstice with a *gnomon*, and counting the number of days thence till the next solstice. The *gnomon* was merely a vertical rod, fastened in a horizontal plane, on which was drawn a meridian, or north and south line, running through the foot of the rod. The day of the solstice was known by the fact that the shadow of the rod was then shortest at noon. By comparing the length of the shadow with that of the rod, they could ascertain the sun's meridian altitude; and such instruments were used for this purpose until the 17th century.

The Egyptians added the five additional days after the last month, every year, in order to prevent the various months from rapidly receding among the seasons. But it was gradually found that even this was insufficient. It appeared that the Sun performed its circuit in the ecliptic in about 365 days and one quarter. Hence the months actually receded, so that one fell on the time formerly occupied by the succeeding month in about 120 years. Or more accurately, any particular day, such as new-year's day, would pass through every part of the seasons in 1461 years: for 1461 multiplied by 365, is equal to 1460 multiplied by 365 $\frac{1}{4}$. This method was actually adopted by the Egyptians, who called the period of 1461 years a *Sothic cycle*, from *Soth*, their name for *Sirius*, or the dog-star. They fixed on this luminary to mark the period, because the Nile began to rise when Sirius rose immediately before the sun.

The Egyptian reckoning did not correspond with the actual changes of the Moon, which occur in less than 30 days; and as it was much easier to determine its exact position than that of a fixed star, it was thought desirable by the Greeks to adopt a reckoning which should conform to the Moon's motions. This they attempted by making the months 29 and 30 days alternately.

This gave a year of only 354 days; and various devices were employed to obviate the difficulty, none of which proved satisfactory till the time of *Meton*, the Athenian, who introduced the cycle called by his name, B.C. 432. In 19 years, there are 235 lunar months or lunations, wanting only $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and 6940 days, wanting $9\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Hence if the 19 years were divided into 235 months, which agreed with the changes of the Moon, the same succession of lunar phenomena would again recur very nearly. In order to this, the months of 30 days (called *full* months) and those of 29 days (called *hollow* months) were distributed in a rather complex way, so that, in the cycle, there were 125 of the former and 110 of the latter. This cycle is still used for determining the time of Easter.

The cycle of Meton was improved by *Calippus* of Cyzicus (B.C. 330,) who proposed to deduct a day from one of the full months at the end of 76 years, hence termed the *Calippic period*. This very nearly corrected the error arising from the defective hours, in the plan of Meton.

The earliest calendar of the Romans was designed to be luni-solar, like that of the Greeks; but it was very rude and inaccurate. The year was divided into ten months, March, April, May, June, Quintilis (Fifth), Sextilis (Sixth), September, October, November and December. It began in March, and contained only 304 days. This calendar was reformed at a very early period in the history of Rome by the addition of January to the beginning, and February to the end of the year. This arrangement was changed by the Decemvirs (B.C. 452,) who placed February after January. The months consisted of 29 and 30 days alternately, to correspond with the synodic revolutions of the moon. This gave 354 days, and one was added to make it odd, as odd numbers were reckoned more lucky. To make this arrangement correspond with the solar year, it was ordered that a month should be intercalated between the 23rd and 24th of February every second year, to consist of 23 and 24 days alternately. Had this plan been followed, it would give the year a mean length of $365\frac{1}{4}$ days, and the months would have corresponded with the seasons for many centuries. But the pontiffs exercised a discretionary power over the intercalary month, and frequently altered its assigned length, in order to hasten or retard election day. This practice produced great confusion; and by the time of Julius Cæsar, March had advanced to the winter solstice. When Cæsar, therefore, became dictator, he brought to Rome Sosigenes, an astronomer of Alexandria, in order to reform the calendar. Under his direction, it was ordered that the civil year should be regulated solely by the sun. The common year was to consist of 365 days; but every

fourth year was to contain 366. The odd months were to contain 31 days, and the even, 30, except February, which was to contain 29 days in common years, and 30 every fourth or leap year. This additional day was intercalated between the 24th and 25th; and as the Romans called the 24th of February, the sixth before the calends or first of March, leap year was called *bis-sextilis* (twice-sixth,) as the 24th was reckoned twice. The new calendar went into operation on the first day of January, B.C. 45, which was called *the year of confusion*, as 90 days were added to it, in order to bring the computed period of the seasons to correspond with the real.

This new calendar was found to be so superior to all methods which regarded the motions of the Moon, that it superseded every other throughout Europe. It has undergone few changes till the present day; and some of these were not for the better. *Quintilis* was called *July*, in honor of Julius Cæsar; and *Sextilis* was soon afterwards called *August*, in honor of his successor, the emperor Augustus. As it was considered disreputable to this dignitary that the month named after him should be shorter than that called by the name of his grand-uncle, a day was taken from February and added to July, making the length of these months such as we now reckon, and the length of the subsequent months were changed.* One great improvement which was made soon after the fall of Paganism, in the fourth century, was the abolition of the awkward Roman method of counting backward. The *calends*, *nones* and *ides* disappeared; and the simple and primitive method of counting the days forward, in regular numerical order, was substituted in their place. The intercalary day in leap year was added at the end of February, instead of counting the 24th twice. No further change was made until the end of the sixteenth century.

SECTION II.

Oldest Theory of the World—Superseded by that of a Revolving Celestial Sphere—Aristotle first proves the globular form of the Earth—Its circumference is first measured by Eratosthenes.

THE apparent diurnal motion of all the heavenly bodies, around an immovable point, termed the *pole*, is one of those phenomena which must have been familiar to all observers of the heavens from the earliest times. The revolving bodies were observed to move so as to be equidistant from the pole, throughout their course. The oldest theory explained this by supposing that the bodies moved eastward under ground, the Earth being assumed

* September and November were made short, and October and December long.

to be an immense plain, resting on something not well defined. This was superseded, among the more enlightened nations, by the simple hypothesis that the Earth was a large sphere, at rest in the centre of the Universe, and that the heavenly bodies moved round it from east to west, owing to their being attached to a revolving hollow sphere.

The credit of having satisfactorily proved the form of the Earth, is due to Aristotle, who died B.C. 323. He deduced this conclusion from the tendency of all bodies to the centre, the form of its shadow in lunar eclipses, and the varying appearances of the stars, as we move north or south. From the rapidity with which the meridian altitude of the stars thus vary, he further inferred that the Earth was not very large, compared with the magnitude of the fixed stars.

The first known attempt to determine the size of the Earth, founded on correct principles, was made by Eratosthenes of Alexandria, who died about 200 B.C. Syene in Upper Egypt was known to be exactly on the Tropic of Cancer, since objects cast no shadow there at the Summer Solstice. Eratosthenes found that at Alexandria, which was supposed to be the same meridian, the Sun was distant from the zenith at noon, on the same day, the fiftieth part of a circumference. Hence the distance between Alexandria and Syene, was one fiftieth of the Earth's circumference; and as this distance was found by actual measurement to be 5000 stadia, the whole circumference would be about 250,000 stadia, or 30,000 miles. This is larger than the actual size, owing to the fact that Syene is considerably further east than Alexandria. Various attempts of the same kind were made subsequently, but none that was decidedly superior until modern times.

SECTION III.

Early division of the stars into Planets and Fixed Stars—Theories of the Planetary Motions—Opinions of Pythagoras—Taught publicly by his pupil Philolaus—They are expounded and defended by Aristarchus—Attempt of this astronomer to determine the distance of the Sun—He ascertains the distance and size of the Moon, the Earth's semi-diameter being the unit.

It was discovered at a very early period, that some of the stars always preserved the same relative position with respect to each other, while a few were incessantly changing their position: now they appeared west of a certain group of stars; then they appeared to the east; and sometimes the case was the reverse. The former were termed *fixed stars*, and the latter *planets*, or *wanderers*. The general mode of accounting for the phenomena of the planets was,

by supposing that they moved round the Earth, either in epicycles or eccentric circles, or both. But a more correct theory was formed at a very early period. Pythagoras, of Samos, who died B.C. 500, supposed that the Earth revolved round the Sun, causing the changes of seasons, and the apparent motion of the Sun in the ecliptic, and that at the same time, it revolved on its axis, and thus caused the changes of day and night, and the apparent diurnal motion of the heavenly bodies from east to west. He attributed similar motions to the other planets. These views were afterwards publicly taught by his disciple Philolaus, Pythagoras having communicated them only in private to his scholars, in the school which he opened at Crotona, in Southern Italy. But the most celebrated Astronomer of antiquity, who held these doctrines of the Earth's motions, was Aristarchus of Alexandria, the predecessor of Eratosthenes, and contemporary of Euclid the Geometer. He accounted for the apparently uniform motions of the fixed stars by supposing that the diameter of the Earth's orbit is but a speck compared to their distances.

Aristarchus attempted to determine the comparative distances of the Sun and Moon by measuring the angle they subtend when the Moon is dichotomized, or exactly half full, and consequently the two lines drawn from its centre to the Sun and the Earth, are at right angles to each other. This plan is theoretically unobjectionable; but the difficulty of determining the exact time when the Moon was dichotomized, and of measuring the angle correctly, rendered the result very wide of the truth. He made the Sun only about 19 times as far from the Earth as the Moon, when it is actually about 400 times as distant. He determined that the Moon is at the distance of 56 semi-diameters of the Earth, and that its diameter is about one third of the Earth's, both of which conclusions are nearly correct.

SECTION IV.

Why the opinions of Pythagoras were rejected—Theories of Hipparchus—He constructs the first Astronomical Tables—Why his theories were retained, though erroneous—He makes a catalogue of fixed stars, constructs the first celestial globe, explains the nature of parallax, shows how the position of a place can be determined from its latitude and longitude, improves Trigonometry, discovers the precession of the equinoxes, and the equation of time—He attempts to measure the exact length of the tropical year.

AFTER the time of Aristarchus, no distinguished Astronomer adopted the opinions of the Pythagoreans till the 16th century. Mankind had not yet sufficiently learned to distinguish what they

saw from what they inferred ; and hence those views were considered opposed to the evidence of sight. The Pythagorean doctrine, that the planets move round the sun with a uniform velocity, in circular orbits, with the sun in the centre,* was also contradicted by observation ; for it was found that the sun's motion in the ecliptic was not uniform, being quicker in winter and slower in summer. The theories of Hipparchus of Alexandria, who died about 125 B.C., appeared to harmonize much more accurately with observation. He accounted for the apparent irregularities of the sun's motion in the ecliptic, by supposing that it moved round the earth in an eccentric circle, with a uniform velocity, and that the earth's eccentricity, or distance from the centre of the circle, was about one twenty-fourth part of its diameter, the *apogee*, or point of the circle farthest from the earth, being $24\frac{1}{2}$ degrees before the summer solstice. He accounted for the irregularity of the moon's motion in longitude by means of an eccentric, as in the case of the sun. Its varying position in latitude was explained by supposing that the eccentric moved eastward, carrying the line of the apsides in the same direction, at a rate which was easily determined from a few observed eclipses.

The above suppositions corresponded so nearly with the apparent motions of the sun and moon, that Hipparchus was enabled to construct tables of these motions, which enabled him to predict eclipses with considerable accuracy. As this was the principal use to which his tables were applied, they appeared more accurate than they really were : for some of the moon's smaller irregularities, of which Hipparchus knew nothing, disappear at new and full moon. Had the ancients possessed the means of accurately measuring distances, the theories of eccentrics and epicycles would have been exploded at once, for the body would be found in many instances to be most remote when the theory required it to be nearest, and conversely. But such was not the case. Telescopes and instruments for measuring either time or angular distances, with any great degree of accuracy, were entirely unknown. Hence those theories were retained till the days of Copernicus.

Hipparchus was not the first who adopted the notion of eccentrics and epicycles to explain the irregularities in the motions of the sun, moon, and planets. But he was the first who assigned the dimensions of the quantities, in such a manner that tables

* The reasons assigned for this belief appear to us rather singular. Nobody would tolerate, in the movements of a decent and orderly man, that he should go sometimes faster, sometimes slower, and sometimes stand still, unless there was some particular reason for his doing so. But no such cause could possibly be alleged for quickness and slowness in the motions of the stars, which were naturally incorruptible. Therefore their motions were uniform. This reasoning misled all the ancient Astronomers.

could be constructed, from which could be learned their future places.

Hipparchus determined the mean apparent motions of the planets with much accuracy; but he did not possess sufficient data for constructing tables of these motions. He also determined and recorded the positions of upwards of 1000 fixed stars, as accurately as the few rude instruments of the period admitted. Their places he marked upon a celestial globe, the earliest of which we read. He was the first that made any allowance for parallax, or the difference of apparent place in a body caused by viewing it from the surface of the earth, instead of the centre; and he showed how the true apparent place could be determined. He was the first that showed how the position of a place on the earth's surface could be determined by means of its latitude and longitude; and he fixed the first meridian at the Canaries, the most westerly land then known. This continued to be the place whence longitude was reckoned, till modern times. He also discovered the elementary propositions of plane and spherical trigonometry, which were necessary in using his tables.

Another important achievement of Hipparchus was, the discovery of the precession of the equinoxes, or the westerly motion of the point where the ecliptic cuts the equinoctial, or the great circle equidistant from the celestial poles. This discovery was made by observing that the star called *Spica Virginis* was only six degrees from the autumnal equinoctial point in his own time, while he found that in the time of his predecessor, Timocharis, who had made observations about 300 B.C., it must have been eight degrees from the same point. He then extended his observations, and found that all the fixed stars had a similar eastward motion around the poles of the ecliptic. The cause of this apparent motion was not discovered till the time of Newton.

Hipparchus found that the solar days were not all of equal length by observing the unequal movements of the sun in the ecliptic, and the effects of the obliquity of this circle to the equinoctial. To find the mean time, he applied the correction called *the equation of time*, or the amount that is to be added to or subtracted from *apparent* time, or that shown directly by the sun, in order to obtain *mean* time, or that shown by a clock which goes uniformly, and neither too fast nor too slow. He made the greatest value of the equation 33 minutes and 20 seconds, which is about ten minutes too much. As this element is more easily determined by observing the sun when it is on the meridian, Hipparchus began the day at midnight instead of sunrise, a custom still followed in the reckoning of civil time, although subsequent Astronomers preferred to begin the day at noon.

By comparing the time of the solstice as determined by Aristarchus B.C., 281, with the time of its occurrence in his own day, 145 years afterwards, he found that it occurred 12 hours earlier than it would have done if the year had been exactly $365\frac{1}{4}$ days long, and thus he concluded that the year wanted 5 minutes of the quarter day. As the measurements, and especially that of Aristarchus, were not quite accurate, he still made the year about 6 minutes too long. Hipparchus was aware that these observations might be erroneous; and therefore he made observations on the time of the equinoxes, at an interval of 33 years. From these he determined the length very nearly the same as by the other method; and he proposed that the additional day added every fourth year should be omitted at the end of every three hundred years, a suggestion which was not heeded for more than 1600 years.

SECTION V.

Ptolemy extends the theories of Hipparchus—He discovers the Moon's evection, and constructs tables of the planets—His Al Magest—Chaldee Astronomy—The Saros—Character of the Egyptian, Hindoo, and Chinese Astronomy.

NOTHING further was effected in Astronomy till the time of Ptolemy of Alexandria, who died, A.D. 150. He adopted the views of his predecessor, Hipparchus, and the theory which is called by his name would be more properly styled the *Hipparchic*. He discovered the second great inequality in the moon's motion, termed the *evection*, which arises from the disturbing influence of the sun, when the moon is on the line of the apsides. He also applied the method of Hipparchus to the planets, whose motions, as well as the moon's evection, he explained by combinations of epicycles and eccentrics not easily explained or understood. It was the complexity of this system that led Alphonso X., King of Castile, to say, when it was explained to him, that if the Almighty had consulted him, at the creation, the universe would have been on a better and simpler plan; meaning, we presume, that it was not to be supposed a being of infinite wisdom and power would have established such an intricate system, of which Milton speaks contemptuously, as being

“ With centric and eccentric scribbled o'er,
Cycle in epicycle, orb in orb.”

Ptolemy composed a work, still extant, entitled *Syntaxis Megiste*, or the *Greatest Construction*, but called by the Arabians *Al Magest*, and this is its common name in Europe, which derived its first

knowledge of the work from that people. Here Ptolemy communicates everything of any importance that he knew regarding the heavenly bodies; and it is from him that we learn the discoveries of Hipparchus: for all the works of this Astronomer have perished, except a commentary on a poem of Aratus, called the *Phænomena*.

Ptolemy employed arguments similar to Aristotle's to prove the spherical form of the earth, and some first employed by himself. Of the latter are the appearance of a ship at sea, and the apparent diurnal motions of the heavenly bodies around the poles, which would be different if the earth were a plane, a polyhedron, or a cylinder.

With Ptolemy ended the astronomical discoveries of the ancients. After his time the Greek Astronomers only wrote commentaries; and the Romans never made any discoveries in the science. Indeed they paid little attention to it; and many of them confounded Astronomers with Magicians and Astrologers. Although the Chaldeans appear to have made observations from a very early period, their attainments in Astronomy by no means equalled those of the Greeks. They observed, indeed, that eclipses recurred after a period of about 18 years and a half, which they termed *saros*: but this appears to have been discovered empirically without any accurate or extensive knowledge of the Moon's motions. The Egyptians and Chinese were not in advance of the Chaldeans; and the same remark applies to the Hindoos. The high antiquity claimed by Bailly and some others for the Hindoo Astronomy, has been shown to be baseless; and their knowledge of the science was by no means extensive, previous to their intercourse with the Greeks and Mohammedans.

SECTION VI.

Character of the Arabian Astronomy—Labors of Al Batani—Tables of Ulug Bey—Statement of Al Batragi—Abul Wefa discovers the Moon's variation—Arabians improve Arithmetic, lay the foundations of Algebra, improve astronomical instruments, and extend Trigonometry—Ben Abd-el-malik and Ben Issa measure a degree of Latitude—Purbach and Regiomontanus.

DURING the fourteen centuries that elapsed between Ptolemy and Copernicus, Astronomy made little progress; and that little was effected solely by the Mohammedans, chiefly the Arabians. These translated and diligently studied Greek treatises; but they rarely ventured to go beyond their masters, and examine or think independently.

Mohammed Al Batani, of Mesopotamia, generally called *Albatagnius*, who died A.D. 912, was one of the principal Astronomers of this school. He published tables of the Sun, Moon, and planets superior to those of Ptolemy. He also discovered the progressive motion of the Sun's apogee, or rather of the Earth's aphelion, by comparing its position in his own day with what it had been in Ptolemy's.

Several tables were published after those of Al Batani; but the best and most noted were those of Ulug Bey of Samarcand, a grandson of Timur, who died in 1449. These were based on his own observations; and they are still referred to, in some cases. Like all the Mohammedan tables, they were constructed on the Ptolemaic theory. This was received by them to the exclusion of the older theory of Pythagoras. Yet some of them were struck with its complexity. Al Batragi says that at first it astonished and confounded him; but afterwards, he says, "God was pleased to open to him the occult secret in the theory of his orbs, and to make known to him the truth of their essence, and the rectitude of the quality of their motion." In the preface to his tables Ulug mentions that eight stars given in Ptolemy's catalogue could not then be found in the heavens. Six of these lay near the Southern Fish; and they have never been seen since. Four of them were of the third magnitude. Ulug also measured the obliquity of the ecliptic with great accuracy.

About A.D. 975, Mohammed Abul Wefa, of Bagdad, discovered that inequality of the Moon's motion, arising from that part of the Sun's disturbing force which is at right-angles to the radius vector, or line joining the centres of the earth and moon, and which accelerates the Moon's motion from the quadratures to the syzygies, and retards it from the syzygies to the quadratures. This is termed the *variation*. At the syzygies and the quadratures, it disappears; and this was the cause of its escaping the notice of the Greek Astronomers, who observed the Moon chiefly at these times. But Abul Wefa did not determine the exact amount of the variation; and his discovery was entirely unknown in Europe in the seventeenth century, when it was re-discovered by Tycho Brahe.

The Arabians aided the progress of Astronomy by introducing the decimal notation in Arithmetic, and laying the foundations of Algebra. Some consider that they borrowed these from the Hindoos. But the fact that the numeral figures in Sanscrit, the language of the ancient Hindoos, are manifestly the Arabic letters, conclusively proves the contrary, so far as Arithmetic is concerned: and as all Hindoo works older than the tenth century, contain nothing deserving the name of science, we may safely infer that

their knowledge of Algebra originated from the same source as their knowledge of decimal Arithmetic. The Arabians also improved the construction of instruments, and used them with care: hence the superiority of their tables over those of the Greeks. They also made some improvements in Trigonometry, such as substituting the sine or half-chord of double the arc, instead of the chord of the arc, and the introduction of the tangent, improvements generally attributed to Al Batani.

The measurement of a degree of the meridian was made in the ninth century, under the Caliph Al Mamun, on the great plain of Singiar in Mesopotamia, by Khalid Ben Abd-el-malik, and Ali Ben Issa. Both met, with their attendants, and each party then measured one degree from that place, in contrary directions. One party found it to be 56 miles, and the other 56 miles and two thirds, the miles consisting of 4000 cubits. As the exact length of their cubit is unknown, the measurement is of no use at the present day. We are told the cubit was 27 inches long, each inch being the thickness of six grains of barley.

In Europe, no further advance was made in Astronomy till the time of Copernicus, although the improvements effected in Trigonometry about the middle of the fifteenth century, by George Purbach of Bavaria, and his pupil John Muller,* prepared the way for the rapid strides made during the next two centuries.

P. M. G.

TO BE CONTINUED.

(For the Register.)

ETHNOLOGY OF HINDOSTAN.

THE fertility of Hindostan, the great beauty and magnificence of its scenery, its mineral wealth, its crowded population, and the many striking peculiarities presented by its motley tribes of men, conspire to render it one of the most interesting countries of the eastern world. We, therefore, present our readers with the substance of an article relating to those tribes, which has recently appeared in the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal*, from the pen of Major-General John Briggs, of the British Army, Vice-President of the Ethnological Society of London.

Before the Mohammedan conquerors entered India, the ruling race were the Hindoos, properly so called. These were divided

* Muller was a native of Konigsberg, in Prussia; and hence, according to the practice of those times, he was called *Regiomontanus*, meaning, "of Konigsberg."

into four castes: 1st, the military, including sovereigns and princes, as well as warriors; 2d, the priesthood; 3d, the mercantile and mechanical classes; and 4th, the cultivators of the land. These various castes kept themselves entirely distinct, and never intermarried with each other. The Hindoos are still divided in this manner. They are further distinguished from the aboriginal inhabitants by being governed by municipalities in their towns and villages, burning their dead, abstaining from eating the flesh of cattle, and from ardent spirits. They believe in the transmigration of souls, are guided in religious matters solely by their brahmins or priests, and worship their ancient heroes as demigods, who are supposed to plead with the Supreme God for those who humbly and penitently pray for their intercession.

The aboriginal tribes, of whom many are still found in Hindostan, all differ, in the particular just mentioned, from the Hindoos. Their government is strictly patriarchal, and all crimes are punished and disputes settled by their assembled elders, or heads of tribes. They eat the flesh of cattle without hesitation, whether the animal be slaughtered or die a natural death. They have no municipalities nor laws of caste; and they bury instead of burning their dead. They have no regular priesthood, but select laymen to perform religious rites for the time being, chiefly, however, from those believed to possess the power of magic. They have generally no knowledge of a future state, and confine their prayers to petitions for such things as they desire to obtain, to the exclusion of thanksgiving. In those parts where they are still unsubdued, they offer human sacrifices; and they are said to have been much addicted to this abominable practice from the earliest ages. They make offerings to the gods of the elements, and worship power in every shape, to avert danger, including all beasts of prey, venomous reptiles, and the wild elephant.

The domestic habits and institutions of the aborigines are said to bear a strong resemblance to those of the great Mongols, or Tartar races, and they appear to be all of one stock. They employ whipping as a remedy for tertian fever and ague, like the Turkman tribes of Persia, and also as a remedy for violent insanity. They consider persons thus affected to be possessed of a devil, whom they thus attempt to expel. Their weapons are the sword, the bow and arrow, the javelin, and generally a bill-hook. Their virtues are, dauntless courage, fidelity and loyalty to their superiors and chiefs, and probity in performing their engagements. Among their vices are drunkenness on all occasions of domestic or national festivity, and rapine. Those who dwell in the forests and mountains subsist in a great measure by plundering or levying tribute on the inhabitants of the open plains, on the plea that

the latter have dispossessed them of their native soil. In pursuit of this object they seldom commit murder; but they sometimes torture their prisoners to extort confessions of concealed wealth, and sometimes they burn the soles of their feet and the palms of their hands, to prevent them from escaping, in the absence of guards.

In physiognomy they resemble the Tartars, or Thibetans, rather than the Hindoos. They have generally long, bushy hair, thick lips, high cheek-bones, and small, piercing eyes, although there are considerable diversities observable among them in this respect.

The Hindoos are undoubtedly the same race as the great mass of the population of Europe, excluding the Turks, the Iberians, and the Finnish and Ugorean tribes. The language of the ancient Hindoos, termed Sanscrit, is still found in books, although it has now ceased to be spoken. It bears a striking affinity to the classic languages of Greece and Rome, and those of the same class still spoken in Europe. The languages of Northern India are evidently descended from the Sanscrit, as the Italian and French have sprung from the Latin. They consist chiefly of the Hindee, the Bhirjee, the Guzerattee, the Mharattee, the Bengalee, and the Oria. The Hindee is said to differ least from the Sanscrit; and as we proceed southward the dialects are intermixed with more and more of elements derived from the languages of the aborigines, and they all differ much from the Sanscrit in the syntax.

The languages of Southern India are the Gondee, Telugu, or Telingee, Canaree, and Tamelee, or Tamul language. These languages are all of a different stock from those of Northern India: but all of them have borrowed more or less from the Sanscrit dialect, especially abstract and scientific terms. But they differ, not only in the words, but in structure and idiom, and are found to resemble the languages of Thibet and Burmah, which connect them with the Chinese.

The evidence of language and physical peculiarities is corroborated by ancient poems and traditions, which describe them as of the Tartan or Scythian race. The Gonds are reckoned the purest of all the aboriginal races; and their language is found to bear a close affinity to that of the tribes beyond the Himmalehs, around the sources of the Ganges and Brahmapootra, and to that of the Burmese.

The Hindoo race probably entered Northern India from Persia at a very early period; but they spread over the peninsula of Hindostan at a comparatively recent period, not probably before the fifth century of the Christian era. They seem to have entered in two directions, the one from Guzerat, gradually extending over Khandeish and Berar; the other from the valley of the Ganges,

along the coast of the Bay of Bengal. They did not subdue the island of Bombay till the 14th century; and the Mohammedans found several princes of the aboriginal race occupying several strongholds near Poona, in the beginning of the 15th century. Several principalities of the same race existed within the memory of men still living; and the territory of Gondwana appears never to have been reduced to a Hindoo state, but to have preserved its institutions, laws, and religion unaltered to this day. The Hindoos appear to have reduced such of the aborigines as submitted to them to a state of serfdom or predial slavery, compelling them to till their own lands, and to give its surplus produce to the conquerors. But some of the native tribes, especially in the more mountainous regions, long preserved their independence; and the institution of caste prevented the Hindoos from ever intermingling with the aborigines even where they dwelt together.

A. A. O.

CONDITION OF JAPAN.

A DUTCH traveller named Lauts, who resided for some time at Nangasaki, in Japan, has published a work on the political and civil institutions of that country; and we are indebted to the N. Y. Tribune for the following summary of the most interesting portion of the contents:

The Japanese, like many other races, connect the fabulous period of their history with their religion. They consider the ruler of the Empire to be descended from a divinity, who came down from heaven upon the Japanese Islands, which he made fertile and populated, instructing the inhabitants in the arts of life and the doctrines of religion. In order that this supernatural race should not become extinct, the Emperor is allowed twelve wives, and is succeeded by his eldest son. From this sanctity of origin is derived the custom of never wearing the same clothes more than once. The dishes and cups in which food and drink are handed to him are also used but once; and likewise the cooking implements. Nevertheless, these vessels are not of varnished wood, which is mostly used throughout Japan, but of clay or porcelain, which, after one use, is shivered to pieces. The present reigning family dates back to the seventh century before Christ, and numbers upwards of 124 rulers.

The second son of the *Mikado* (Emperor) was formerly his father's chief military officer; but afterwards one of the rulers, out of love for his third son, made the office alternate triennially

between the second and third sons. In the course of a few generations, so much jealousy arose between the alternate Generals, that, in their dissensions, the Emperor himself was robbed of the greater part of his power, and, since the year 1586, has been little more than a nominal ruler. However, he is still considered as holy and as absolute in power, though the *Sjogun*, or Crown-General, takes his place in all civil affairs.

Each chief city or province of Japan has two Governors, who relieve each other every alternate year. The one not in office remains in Jeddo, the capital city of Japan, where he receives from his colleague regular communications concerning everything that occurs, so that he is ready to resume the authority at the appointed time. Every Governor has two Secretaries, who divide the departments of justice between them, and control the subordinate civil officers. During the absence of the Governor, Secretaries and Justices in the appointed province, their wives and children are left in Jeddo, as hostages for the faithful performance of their duty. The Princes are subject to the same rules as the Governors, spending a year on their domain and a year in Jeddo alternately. During their absence from the capital, they are obliged to live in the greatest seclusion, leaving their residence only on stated occasions. All their duties are so arranged beforehand, that they are mere automata in action. Besides this, they are surrounded with secret spies, who report all their movements to the capital.

The government of the cities, at least at Nagasaki, the trading-port of Japan, is in the hands of nine Burgesses, whose office is hereditary. They can only judge by a unanimous vote. Under them are the *Ottonas*, who have charge of a street or quarter, and who also direct the police and decide arbitrations. Under these again are the *Kasiras*, who take care of single houses and families. In Nagasaki, as well as through the whole Empire, each street is 114 Dutch yards in length, with a door at each end, so that all communication with the rest of the city may be cut off. Each street has a hundred or more houses; at its end is a small shrine on a stone pedestal, shaped like a lantern, and containing two or three images of the gods. There are, also, in each street, several watch-houses, which at night and on all extraordinary occasions are provided with a watch, chosen by turns from among the inhabitants of the street. The Japanese consider the watchman holy, and opposition to him or ridicule of his office are considered capital offences, and punished with death. In times of danger, each family furnishes one man; five men from the adjoining houses form a troop; and twenty-five troops march together under the command of the *Kasiras* and the *Ottonas*.

The head of the family is responsible for his children and associates, no matter who the latter may be; besides which, every five adjoining families are responsible for each other. It is therefore the duty of each head of a family to take notice of the affairs of his neighbor, and acquaint the Kasira with everything that happens. If this is not promptly done, he is involved in his neighbor's guilt and suffers the same punishment, even if it be banishment or death. This universal responsibility prevents many crimes and treasonable plots, and executions seldom take place. The Judge disregards all mitigating circumstances in the exercise of his office; but he is careful to punish only when the laws have been knowingly and wilfully broken. Nowhere is there greater security of person and property than in Japan. This cunning system, founded on reciprocal espionage and reciprocal responsibility, binds together as with an intricate net high and low, princes and subjects. From the arteries of the body politic it branches out into the finest hair-drawn channels in every department of trade and society.

Not only Princes, Ministers of State and other high officers transmit their stations to their eldest sons, but officers, tradesmen and mechanics in general. Those who have no sons may adopt a brother or some other blood relation, or even a person of inferior rank. Princes, however, require the consent of the Emperor. A singular example of adoption happened during the reign of the Emperor Josi-Muné. The Prince of Figo was murdered in the imperial palace on a festival day, leaving behind neither a lineal nor an adopted son. When the Emperor was informed of this, he ordered that everything should happen as if the Prince was only wounded. The corpse was therefore seated in a litter and carried to the princely residence of Figo, where messengers every day arrived from the Emperor, inquiring how he fared. Finally, a messenger communicated to the corpse the imperial permission to adopt his youngest brother, who was ordered to appear before the Emperor and be installed as successor, even if the Prince should in the mean time have died of his wounds. The Prince of Figo was therefore "inwardly" dead, according to the Japanese method of speech, while he was "outwardly" still in life. In this manner an official sometimes lives two or three years "outwardly," after he has actually died. This happens particularly when he has left debts at his death. His office is then administered by another, who receives only a portion of the salary, the remainder of which goes towards discharging his liabilities.

The principal punishments in Japan are banishment, house-arrest, decapitation, crucifixion and disembowelling. Those condemned to banishment are sent either to a desert island, to a

fortress in the mountains, or to the copper-mines. House-arrest is visited on high and low, and is alike dishonoring. The doors and windows are nailed up with boards, all connection with the street is prohibited, and the men are forbidden to shave. This punishment usually lasts a hundred days. Decapitation is performed with little ceremony. The Princes and other dignitaries have power to punish their servants and subjects with death, and beheading is frequently performed in the interior of the palaces, without occasioning particular notice. Crucifixion is inflicted in two ways—either with the head upwards or downwards. Those who suffer in the former way, sit upon a cross-piece which is fastened upon an upright post, their feet bound to a beam below. After the criminal has been fastened so that he cannot move, he is pierced repeatedly with a lance having a broad, thin blade. It is said that the servants of justice are so skilled in their art, that they sometimes transfix the criminal's body sixteen times before he expires. Those who are crucified with their head downwards, are suffered to die in that position. Sometimes small gashes are made in the top of the head, in order to liberate the overcharged blood-vessels. This has the effect of prolonging life, and the terrible punishment is sometimes endured ten days before death relieves the sufferer.

The act of disembowelling is a privilege of the better classes, who from their youth are all taught the rules and regulations under which it must be observed. On the occasion of performing the act, a particular garment must be worn, and the nobles never neglect taking it with them, when they set out upon a journey. When a person is condemned to disembowel himself—which does not often happen—his sons and brothers, as well as his father and uncles, are all obliged to perform the same operation on themselves. All receive the sentence, so that the act is done by all at the same time. The condemned person invites his most intimate friends, and assembles with them, frequently in the inner court of a temple, where they carouse and drink liberally of *sake*, (a strong liquor prepared from rice, which is used in Japan, instead of wine.) The condemned then pronounces a farewell address, takes leave of his friends, and after the imperial command has been read aloud, draws his sabre, leans forward and makes a straight cut across his body. A favorite servant or one of his friends stands behind him and immediately strikes his head off. In this manner, the timid are helped out of the world. Those who are bolder sometimes gash their body in the form of a cross, and end by plunging the blade into their throats.

Voluntary disembowelling is not unfrequent. Nobles or warriors make use of it when, through their own neglect or the guilt

of their subordinates, they have reason to anticipate punishment. Governors also perform it, when some misdeed has happened within their jurisdiction, the perpetrator of which they cannot point out. In all these cases the Japanese prefers voluntary disembowelling to a slight but dishonorable punishment, since he thus preserves the honor of his family and secures his son's succession in the office. The same operation is also performed in the presence of a person by whom the suicide has been injured or offended. In Japan an insult can only be washed out by one's own blood.

Although there is no division of castes in Japan, as in China, and India, the different classes are distinctly separated, and it is almost impossible for one of a low rank ever to reach a higher, except through adoption. The highest class is the nobility, which is again divided into the higher and lower, the former of whom are allowed to wear white garments. Next come the warriors, who carry sabres in their girdles; and then the priests, who in rank alone, but not in position, stand higher than the former. The intelligent class consists mostly of civil officers, physicians, and other scientific men. They have the right to wear sabres and pantaloons—a right also possessed by the lowest of their servants. To the lower classes belong the merchant, the mechanic, the manufacturer, the farmer, and the day-laborer. According as a trade or profession is held in the public estimation, are the persons who carry it on respected or despised. Thus the artist, and even the farmer, though they are generally poor, are more respected than the merchant, no matter how great may be his wealth.

The peasants and the lower classes are exposed to all kinds of oppression, and pass their lives, with few exceptions, in a state of the greatest misery. Leather-dressing and everything connected with it, is the most despised occupation. Those who carry it on are shut out from respectable society. The executioners are always chosen from amongst them, and they are therefore the most degraded class of men.

SCIENCE, INDUSTRY, AND AGRICULTURE OF THE JAPANESE.

The scientific knowledge of the Japanese evidently came originally from China, and gradually spread itself over all the islands. Later, Japan took her share of the further culture which China received from Hindostan, and felt the influence of Buddhism, which was not confined entirely to the continent. A thirst for knowledge always characterized the Japanese, and they have always endeavored to profit by their intercourse with the Chinese

and Dutch. Chinese writings, printed at the instance of the Christian missionaries in China, have found their way to Japan, and many scientific works which appeared in the Netherlands have been translated into Japanese by native scholars. Since the beginning of the thirteenth century, the art of printing has been carried on in Japan by means of wooden blocks, (Xylography,) and in this manner works are still multiplied in the chief cities of Jeddo and Miako. The Japanese exhibit a great partiality for the natural sciences, medicine, mathematics, and astronomy. In all studies and mental exercises, they give evidence of great patience and perseverance. Instruction in reading and writing is universal—which is a favorable token of the culture of the entire nation.

They have attained much skill in the art of painting, which appears to be a favorite employment with them. The walls and ceilings of their rooms are generally adorned with paintings on paper. The pictures, though brilliant in color, are careful copies of nature, representing flowers, birds, landscapes, still-life or domestic occurrences. Their great fault is a total want of perspective, and an absence of proportion between the different objects represented. No matter how splendid in color or how well-drawn a single object may be, as soon as other objects are introduced, all idea of proportion vanishes; and for this reason alone, their pictures are unpleasant to a civilized eye.

The Japanese method of lackering is deservedly celebrated; their varnish surpasses every other. The Japanese porcelain, so remarkable for its fineness and transparency, was formerly in great demand in Europe. In the preparation of leather the inhabitants are also skilled. The silken stuffs, with their manifold embroidery of flowers, and the astonishing fineness and regularity of the thread, attest to what a high degree of skill they have brought the arts of spinning, weaving, and dyeing. The beautiful baskets and mats which they weave also show that they have by no means remained stationary since their first intercourse with Europeans, but have made important advances in industry. In fact, the whole population of thirty millions possesses such a universal and varied knowledge of all branches of art, that it is not to be wondered at that their trade with Holland and China has not been resumed of late years.

The mines furnish gold, iron, copper, argentiferous copper ore, and also coal, arsenic and some few precious stones, though the latter are not used as ornaments, the Japanese wearing no costly rings, bracelets or necklaces. Porcelain clay, alum and brimstone are also found in the neighborhood of the volcanoes. Silver is very scarce, and zinc, tin and lead almost unknown. In regard

to the knowledge of mines and mining operations, as well as the smelting of the ores, the Japanese are far behind the Europeans. The copper mines yield about 60,000 cwt. of copper annually, one third of which is made into those fine copper bars, which the Dutch and Chinese purchase in trade. The iron is used in foundries, and in the manufacture of arms. The weapons made by the Japanese are of remarkable excellence, but cannot be exported.

Since the Japanese have so readily seized upon all opportunities for improving their skill in all industrial arts, their deficient knowledge of mining must be attributed to the ignorance of the Dutch, who have no mines in their own country. Several natives of Holland, at the request of the Japanese Government, remained some time at Jeddo, in order to instruct the Japanese in the use of fire-arms, the manufacture of powder, and the making of muskets. The Japanese, in their thirst for knowledge, have never failed to draw profit out of all their imitations of European art. Their quickness and perseverance have been employed to such advantage, that they are now able almost entirely to dispense with the products of other countries.

Among their means of subsistence are the flesh of wild and tame fowls, deer, wild and domestic, swine, &c. Oxen, which are so useful to the Japanese farmer, are held in high honor and never slaughtered for food. This is in fact prohibited upon religious (Buddhist) grounds. Nearly all the products of the sea are used as food. Sea-grass and other kinds of marine plants are brought on the table, and, with shell-fish, crabs and fishes, form the delicacies of a Japanese feast. Fish is one of the principal articles of food, not excepting whales, and even the bones are grated or chopped into fine pieces and used as a side-dish. The ordinary daily dishes are made of rice and flour. In agriculture, even the smallest piece of soil is used, and the industrious farmer cannot relax his labors, since in Japan everything is done at regular times, without regard to the state of the weather. The Japanese have brought the cultivation of vegetables and flowers to a pitch of art which is not dreamed of in Europe, and would be considered fabulous. The number of vegetables is small, but they are so nurtured that some kinds—onions and radishes, for instance—attain the most astonishing size.

The plum-tree, which is a great favorite, is so trained and cultivated that the blossoms are as large as those of dahlias. In regard to flowers also, the Japanese gardeners display the most astonishing art. Their great triumph is, to bring both plants and trees into the compass of the little garden attached to houses in the cities. With this view, they have gradually succeeded in dwarfing

the fig, plum and cherry trees, and the vine, to such a diminutive stature as a European would scarcely credit; and yet these dwarf trees are covered with green leaves, and produce blossoms. Some of the gardens resemble pictures in which nature is skilfully modelled in miniature—but it is living nature! Meylan, whose work on Japan was published at Amsterdam in 1830, states that in 1826 the Dutch agent of commerce at Nagasaki was offered “a snuff-box, one inch in thickness and three inches high, in which grew a fig-tree, a bamboo and a plum-tree in bloom.”

Since the Japanese have been prohibited to leave their own country, they have made no progress in ship-building. Formerly, with the help of foreigners, they built large sea-worthy vessels. The most exact rules are laid down for the carpenter who undertakes the building of a ship; the length, breadth and outline are strictly specified, and on the least departure from the proportion, the builder and his family must suffer death. The large junks, which ply on the open sea between Kiusiu and the Great Lien-Kien, do not appear to be subject to these rules, and for their sailing qualities are preferred to the Chinese.

In their architecture the Japanese have followed no foreign model, and therein distinguish themselves from the Chinese. Their castles and fortresses only are constructed in a durable manner; neither their temples nor their dwelling-houses are imposing structures of stone or brick. The Sindo temples—those of the old and original religion of the people—are plain wooden buildings with cane roofs. All the temples, whose number is very large, stand outside of the cities, in the midst of beautiful gardens, and are adorned, outwardly and inwardly, with sculptures and carving, gold and lacker-work. The houses are built of boards, and never more than thirty feet in height; they have mostly one habitable story, or if there is an upper story, it is kept for extraordinary or distinguished guests. In the houses of the nobility, the residence is in the upper story. The roofs are either of cane or burnt tiles. The interior partitions of the houses are made of lattice-work, covered with painted paper, and frequently consist of folding-screens, whereby the rooms may be enlarged or diminished at pleasure.

The houses of the nobility are generally surrounded with a low wall of hewn stone. Within, there are two suites of apartments, one of which is especially for women, and no masculine visitor is admitted. There is the greatest cleanliness everywhere, with no lack of ornaments or conveniences of all kinds; but one would seek in vain for chairs and tables, beds and bedsteads. Chimneys and hearths are quite as scarce; but in the middle of the chamber is a small plaster basin, in which charcoal is kindled in cold

weather. Usually, however, a dish with burning coals is used, in the same manner as braziers in the south of Europe. Inside of the houses the Japanese go barefooted, the floors being covered with thick mats, which are the same size throughout the whole empire, measuring six feet long and three broad. In the houses of the wealthy there are also carpets of hair, which are sometimes richly embroidered and ornamented.

Houses of this kind take fire easily; the flames sweep everything before them, and in a short time hundreds of buildings are in ashes. In order to secure their most precious articles, all rich or important persons have a fire-proof chamber of masonry, secured with copper doors, on the outside of their dwellings. Here all rare or valuable things are kept, and only the most intimate friends are permitted to see the interior.

Conflagrations are naturally not uncommon in Japan, and the devastation which they occasion is often terrible. During the last century Jeddo was five times ravaged by fire. Since the Dutch first carried on their trade with the islands, the *Dairi* or Palace of the Emperor at Miako has been four times laid in ashes: in 1635, 1661, 1733 and 1788.

A SKETCH OF RUSSIA.

RUSSIA first appears in European history in the middle of the ninth century. Its climate and its soil had till then retained it in primitive barbarism. The sullenness of its winter had prevented invasion by civilized nations, and the nature of its soil, one immense plain, had given full scope to the roving habits of its half-famished tribes. The great invasions which broke down the Roman empire, had drained away the population from the north, and left nothing but remnants of clans behind. Russia had no sea by which she might send her bold savages to plunder or to trade with Southern and Western Europe. And, while the man of Scandinavia was subduing kingdoms, or carrying back spoil to his northern crags and lakes, the Russian remained, like the bears of his forest, in his cavern during the long winter of his country; and even when the summer came, was still but a melancholy savage, living like the bear upon the roots and fruits of his ungenial soil.

It was to one of those Normans, who, instead of steering his bark towards the opulence of the south, turned his dreary adventure to the north, that Russia owed her first connection with intelligent mankind.

The people of Novgorod, a people of traders, finding them-

selves overpowered by their barbarian neighbors, solicited the aid of Ruric, a Baltic chieftain, and, of course, a pirate and a robber. The name of the Norman had earned old renown in the north. Ruric came, rescued the city, but paid himself by the seizure of the surrounding territory, and founded a kingdom, which he transmitted to his descendants, and which lasted until the middle of the sixteenth century.

The expeditions which the Russian princes led or sent to plunder Constantinople failed of their object, and after a while they were themselves called upon to stem the tide of invasion.

The cavalry of Genghiz Khan, which came, not in squadrons, but in nations, and charged, not like troops, but like thunder-clouds, began to pour down upon the valley of the Wolga. Yet the conquest of Russia was not to be added to the triumphs of the great Tartar chieftain: a mightier conqueror stopped him on his way, and the Tartar died.

His son, Touthi, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, burst over the frontier at the head of half a million of horsemen. The Russian princes, hastily making up their quarrels, advanced to meet the invader; but their army was instantly trampled down, and, before the middle of the century, all the provinces, and all the cities of Russia, were the prey of the men of the wilderness, Novgorod alone escaped.

The history of this great city would be highly interesting, if it were possible now to recover its details. It was the chief depot of the northern Asiatic commerce with Europe; it had a government, laws, and privileges of its own, with which it suffered not even the Khan of the Tartars to interfere. Its population amounted to four hundred thousand—then nearly equal to the population of a kingdom. In the thirteenth century it connected itself still more effectively with European commerce, by becoming a member of the Hanseatic League; and the wonder and pride of the Russians were expressed in the well-known half-profane proverb, "Who can resist GOD, and the great Novgorod?"

There is always something almost approaching to picturesque grandeur in the triumphs of barbarism. The Turk, until he was fool enough to throw away the turban, was the most showy personage in the world. The Arabs, under Mahomet, were the most stately of warriors, and the Spanish Moors threw all the pomp, and even all the romance, of Europe into the shade. Even the chiefs of the "Golden Horde" seemed to have had as picturesque a conception of supremacy as the Saracen. Their only city was a vast camp, in the plains between the Caspian and the Wolga; and while they left the provinces in the hands of the native princes, and enjoyed themselves in the manlier sports of hunting

through the plains and mountains, they commanded that every vassal prince should attend at the imperial tent to receive permission to reign, or perhaps to live; and that, even when they sent their Tartar collectors to receive their tribute, the Russian princes should lead the Tartar's horse by the bridle, and give him a feed of oats out of their *cap of state*!

But another of those sweeping devastations, one of those gigantic executioners, who seem to have been sent from time to time to punish the horrible profligacies of Asia, now rose upon the north. Timour Khan, the Tamerlane of European story, the Invincible, the Lord of the Tartar world, rushed with his countless troops upon the sovereignties of Western Asia. This universal conqueror crushed the Tartar dynasty of Russia, and then burst away, like an inundation, to overwhelm other lands. But the native Russians again made head against their Tartar masters, and a century and a half of sanguinary warfare followed, with various fortunes, and without any other result than blood.

Without touching on topics exclusively religious, it becomes a matter of high interest to mark the vengeance, furies, and massacres of heathenism, in every age of the world. Yet while we believe, and have such resistless reason to believe, in the Providential government, what grounds can be discovered for this sufferance of perpetual horrors? For this we have one solution, and but one: stern as the inflictions are, may they not be in mercy? may not the struggles of barbarian life be permitted, simply to retard the headlong course of barbarian corruption? may there not be excesses of wickedness, extremes of national vice, an accumulation of offences against the laws of moral nature (which are the original laws of Heaven), actually incompatible with the Divine mercy? Nothing can be clearer to the understanding, than that there are limits which the Divine Being has prescribed to His endurance of the guilt of man, and prescribed doubtless for the highest objects of general mercy; as there are offences which, by human laws, are incompatible with the existence of society.

The crimes of the world before the flood were evidently of an intense iniquity, which precluded the possibility of purification; and thus it became necessary to extinguish a race, whose continued existence could only have corrupted every future generation of mankind.

War, savage feuds, famines, and pestilences, may have been only Divine expedients to save the world from another accumulation of intolerable iniquity, by depriving nations of the power of utter self-destruction, by thinning their numbers, by compelling them to feel the miseries of mutual aggression, and even by re-

ducing them to that degree of poverty which supplied the most effective antidote to their total corruption.

Still, those sufferings were punishments, but punishments fully earned by their fierce passions, savage propensities, remorseless cruelties, and general disobedience of that natural law of virtue, which, earlier even than Judaism or Christianity, the Eternal had implanted in the heart of his creatures.

In the fifteenth century, Russia began to assume a form. Ivan III. broke off the vassalage of Russia to the "Golden Horde." He had married Sophia, the niece of the Greek emperor, to which we may attribute his civilization; and he received the embassies of Germany, Venice, and Rome, at Moscow. His son, Ivan IV., took Novgorod, which he ruined, and continued to fight the Poles and Tartars until he died. His son Ivan, in the middle of the sixteenth century, was crowned by the title of Czar, formed the first standing army of Russia, named the Strelitzes, and established a code of laws. In 1598, by the death of the Czar Feodor without children, the male line of Ruric, which had held the throne for seven hundred and thirty-six years, and under fifty-six sovereigns, became extinct.

Another dynasty of remarkable distinction ascended the throne in the beginning of the seventeenth century. Michael Romanoff, descended from the line of Ruric by the female side, was declared Czar. His son Alexis was the father of Peter the Great, who, with his brother Ivan, was placed on the throne at the decease of their father, but both under the guardianship of the Princess Sophia. But the Princess, who was the daughter of Alexis, exhibiting an intention to seize the crown for herself, a revolution took place in 1689, in which the Princess was sent to a convent. Ivan, who was imbecile in mind and body, surrendered the throne, and Peter became sole sovereign of Russia.

The accession of Peter began the last and greatest period of Russian history. Though a man of fierce passions and barbarian habits, he had formed a high conception of the value of European arts, chiefly through an intelligent Genevese, Lefort, who had been his tutor.

The first object of the young emperor was to form an army; his next was to construct a fleet. But both operations were too slow for his rapidity of conception; and, in 1697, he travelled to Holland and England for the purpose of learning the art of ship-building. He was forced to return to Russia after an absence of two years, by the revolt of the Strelitzes in favor of the Princess Sophia. The Strelitzes were disbanded and slaughtered, and Peter felt himself a monarch for the first time.

The cession of Azof by the Turks, at the peace of Carlowitz in

1699, gave him a port on the Black Sea. But the Baltic acted on him like a spell; and, to obtain an influence on its shores, he hazarded the ruin of his throne.

Sweden, governed by Charles XII., was then the first military power of the north. The fame of Gustavus Adolphus in the German wars, had given the Swedes the example and the renown of their great king; and Charles, bold, reckless, and half lunatic, despising the feebleness of Russia, had turned his arms against Denmark and Poland. But the junction of Russia with the "Northern League" only gave him a new triumph. He fell upon the Russian army, and broke it up on the memorable field of Narva, in 1700.

Peter still proceeded with his original vigor. St. Petersburg was founded in 1703. The war was prosecuted for six years, until the Russian troops obtained a degree of discipline which enabled them to meet the Swedes on equal terms. In 1708, Charles was defeated in the memorable battle of Pultowa. His army was utterly ruined, and himself forced to take refuge in Turkey. Peter was now at the head of northern power. Frederic Augustus was placed on the throne of Poland by the arms of Russia, and from this period Poland was under Russian influence.

Peter now took the title of "Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias." In 1716 he again travelled in Europe. In 1723 he obtained the provinces on the Caspian, by an attack on Persia. But his vigorous, ambitious, and singularly successful career was now come to a close. The death of a Russian prince is seldom attributed to the course of nature; and Peter died at the age of fifty-two, a time when the bodily powers are still undecayed, and the mental are in the highest degree of activity. The day, still recorded by the Russians with the interest due to his extraordinary career, was the 28th of January, 1725. In thirty-six years he had raised Russia from obscurity to a rank with the oldest powers of Europe.

We hasten to the close of this sketch, and pass by the complicated successions from the death of Peter to the reign of the Empress Catherine.

The Russian army had made their first appearance in Germany, in consequence of a treaty with Maria Therese; and their bravery in the "Seven Years' War," in the middle of the last century, established their distinction for soldiership.

Peter III. withdrew from the Austrian alliance, and concluded peace with Prussia. But his reign was not destined to be long. At once weak in intellect, and profligate in habits, he offended and alarmed his empress, by personal neglect, and by threats of sending her to a convent. Catherine, a German, and not accus-

tomed to the submissiveness of Russian wives, formed a party against him. The people were on her side ; and what was of more importance, the Guards declared for her. An insurrection took place ; the foolish Czar, after a six months' reign, was dethroned, July, 1762, was sent to a prison, and within a week was no more. The Russians assigned his death to poison, to strangulation, or to some other species of atrocity. Europe talked for a while of the "Russian Tragedy!" but the Emperor left no regrets behind him ; and "Catherine, Princess of Anhalt Zerbst," handsome, young, accomplished, and splendid, ascended a throne of which her subjects were proud ; which collected round it the élite of Germany, its philosophers and soldiers ; which the empress connected with the *beaux esprits* of France, and the orators and statesmen of England ; and which, during her long, prosperous, and ambitious reign, united the pomp of Asia with the brilliancy and power of Europe. The shroud of the Czar was speedily forgotten, in the embroidered robe which Catherine threw over the empire.

But the greatest crime of European annals was committed in this bold and triumphant reign. Russia, Prussia, and Austria, tempted by the helplessness of Poland, formed a league to seize upon portions of its territory ; and the partition of 1772 took place, to the utter astonishment of Europe, but with scarcely a remonstrance from its leading powers.

Poland had so long been contented to receive its sovereign from Russia, its religious disputes had so utterly weakened the people, its nobility were so profligate, and its peasantry were so poor, that it had lost all the sinews of national defence. It therefore fell an easy prey ; and only waited, like a slave in the market, till the bargain for its sale was complete.

In 1793 a second partition was effected. In the next year, the Polish troops took up arms under the celebrated Kosciusko ; but the Russians advanced on Warsaw with a force which defied all resistance. Warsaw was stormed, twenty thousand gallant men were slain in its defence, Suwarroff was master of the unfortunate capital ; and, in 1795, the third and last partition extinguished the kingdom.

Having performed this terrible exploit, which was to be as terribly avenged, the career of Catherine was closed. She died suddenly in 1796.

Paul, her son, ascended the throne, which he held for five years ; a mixture of the imbecility of his father, and the daring spirit of his mother. Zealous for the honor of Russia, yet capricious as the winds, he first made war upon the French Republic, and then formed a naval league to destroy the maritime supremacy of England. This measure was his ruin ; England was the old ally of

Russia,—France was the new enemy. The nation hated the arrogance and the atheism of France, and resolved on the overthrow of the Czar. In Russia the monarch is so far removed from his people, that he has no refuge among them in case of disaster. Paul was believed to be mad, and madness, on a despotic throne, justly startles a nation. A band of conspirators broke into his palace at midnight, strangled the master of fifty millions of men, and the nation, at morning, was in a tumult of joy.

His son, Alexander, ascended the throne amid universal acclamation. His first act was peace with England. In 1805 his troops joined the Austrian army, and bore their share in the sufferings of the campaign of Austerlitz. The French invasion of Poland, in two years after, the desperate drawn battle of Eylau, and the disaster of Friedland, led to the peace of Tilsit. Alexander then joined the Continental system of Napoleon; but this system was soon found to be so ruinous to Russian commerce, as to be intolerable. Napoleon, already marked for downfall, was rejoiced to take advantage of the Russian reluctance, and instantly marched across the Polish frontier, at the head of a French and allied army amounting to the astonishing number of five hundred thousand men.

Infatuation was now visible in every step of his career. Instead of organizing Poland into a kingdom, which would have been a place of retreat in case of disaster; and, whether in disaster or victory, would have been a vast national fortification against the advance of Russia, he left it behind him; and, instead of waiting for the return of spring, commenced his campaign on the verge of winter, in the land of winter itself, and madly ran all the hazards of invading a boundless empire of which he knew nothing, of which the people were brave, united, and attached to their sovereign; and of which, if the armies had fled like deer, the elements would have fought the battle.

Napoleon was now *infatuated* in all things, infatuated in his diplomacy at Moscow, and infatuated in the rashness, the hurry, and the confusion of his retreat. His army perished by brigades and divisions. On the returning spring, three hundred thousand men were found buried in the snow; all his spoil was lost, his veteran troops were utterly destroyed, his fame was tarnished, and his throne was shaken.

He was followed into France by the troops of Russia and Germany. In 1814, the British army under Wellington crossed the Pyrenees, and liberated the southern provinces of France. In the same year, the Austrian, Prussian, and Russian armies marched to Paris, captured the capital, and expelled Napoleon. The battle of Waterloo, in the year after, destroyed the remnant of his legions

in the field, threw him into the hands of the British government, and exiled him to St. Helena, where he remained a British prisoner until he died.

Alexander died in 1825, at the age of forty-eight, and, leaving no sons, was succeeded by his brother Nicholas, the third son of Paul—Constantine having resigned his claims to the throne. We pass over, for the moment, the various events of the present imperial reign. Its policy has been constantly turned to the acquisition of territory; and that policy has been always successful. The two great objects of all Russian cabinets, since the days of Catharine II., have been the possession of Turkey and the command of the Mediterranean. Either would inevitably produce a universal war; and while we deprecate so tremendous a calamity to the world, and rely on the rational and honorable qualities of the Emperor, to rescue both Russia and Europe from so desperate a struggle, we feel that it is only wise to be prepared for all the contingencies that may result from the greatest mass of power that the world has ever seen, moved by a despotic will, and that will itself subject to the common caprices of the mind of man.

ORIGIN OF BIBLE SOCIETIES.

(From the N. Y. Observer.)

THE London Religious Tract Society, founded in 1799, completed its first half century in May, 1849. It has recently published, in a large volume, its history of this period, during which the total amount received into its treasury from legacies, donations and sales, was about \$6,000,000, and it has circulated *five hundred millions* of copies of tracts and books, in *one hundred and ten* languages and dialects. From this volume we gather the following facts respecting the "*British and Foreign Bible Society*," which it will be seen had its *origin* in the Tract Society.

In the minute books of the London Religious Tract Society, are recorded the first suggestion, and all the subsequent steps, in which the British and Foreign Bible Society originated. The officers and Committees of the Religious Tract Society were the privileged agents employed in the attainment of this holy object, and several of them were among the first officers and committee of the new society, and continued until the close of their earthly course to be its devoted friends and supporters. In this case, as in many others, a small spring has been the source of a mighty river, which has borne its fertilizing influences through a large portion of the earth.

In the year 1802, the Rev. Thomas Charles, of Bala, Wales, was walking in one of the streets of that town, when he met a child who attended his ministry. He inquired if she could repeat the text from which he had preached on the preceding Sunday. Instead of giving a prompt reply, as she had been accustomed to do, she remained silent. "Can you not tell me the text, my little girl?" repeated Mr. Charles. The child wept, but was still silent. At length she said, "The weather, sir, has been so bad, that I could not get to read the Bible." "Could not get to read the Bible! how is that?" said Mr. C. The reason was soon ascertained; there was no copy to which she could gain access, either at her own home, or among her friends, and she was accustomed to travel every week, seven miles over the hills, to a place where she could obtain a Welsh Bible, to read the chapter from which the minister took his text. But during that week, the cold and stormy weather had prevented her usual journey.

This incident made a deep impression on the benevolent mind of Mr. Charles. In December 1802, he took a journey to London, intending to lay certain plans for the distribution of the Scriptures among the Welsh, before several charitable friends, particularly the Committee of the Religious Tract Society, of which he was a member. The subject was much on his mind, and while awake in bed, the idea of having a Bible Society established in London, on a similar basis to the Religious Tract Society occurred to him. He was so cheered by the thought, that he instantly arose, and went out to consult some friends on the subject. The first person he met was Mr. Tarn, who was then on the Committee of the Tract Society. They discussed the subject together for a considerable time. At the next meeting of the Society, held on Tuesday the 7th of Dec. 1802, Mr. Charles was introduced. On this occasion the Rev. M. Wilks presided, and fifteen members of the Committee were present. Mr. Tarn, after the regular business of the Committee was finished, mentioned the particulars of his conversation with Mr. Charles, when the latter fully unfolded his plans, and urged assistance in the attainment of his object. At the moment Mr. Charles was pleading for the Bible for Wales, it occurred to the Rev. Mr. Hughes, one of the Committee; "Surely a society might be formed for the purpose, and if for Wales, why not also for the Empire and the world?" He arose when Mr. Charles had finished, and said that it appeared to him desirable to extend the plan already suggested by Mr. C., so as to facilitate a general circulation of the Scriptures. In these views all present united, and instructed Mr. Hughes to make the following entry in the minute-book of the Tract Society:

"Mr. Charles, of Bala, Wales, having introduced the subject

of dispersing Bibles in Wales, the Committee resolved that it would be highly desirable to stir up the public mind to the dispersion of the Bible generally; and that a paper in a Magazine to this effect would be singularly useful. The circulation of the Bible throughout the world, was deemed sufficiently connected with the object of the Society, thus generally to appear on these minutes, and the Secretary who suggested it, was accordingly desired to enter it."

Mr. Hughes was requested at this conference to prepare a circular-letter, "inviting Christians of every name, to unite in a Society to send the Word of God, without note or comment, all over the world." On Tuesday, Dec. 21, 1802, the Tract Committee again met, when Mr. Thomas Pellatt presided. The following minute is in his handwriting:

"Mr. Secretary read a paper on the importance of forming a Society for the distribution of Bibles in various languages, whereupon it was Resolved:—That a special meeting be holden next Tuesday at eight o'clock, as preparatory to a general meeting to promote that end."

At the appointed time the Committee met. Mr. Charles was in attendance. The following minute was the result:

"The object of the intended Society was maturely considered, and unanimously determined to be, 'To promote the circulation of the Holy Scriptures in foreign countries, and in those parts of the British dominions, for which adequate provision is not yet made;' it being understood that no English translation of the Scriptures will be gratuitously circulated in Great Britain."

The address by Mr. Hughes, explanatory of the object of the intended Society, was adopted after careful revision. On February 1, 1803, the rules of the intended Society were finally settled. On the 8th of the same month, an important minute is recorded. "Voted—That the translation of the Scriptures established by public authority be the only one in the English language to be adopted by the Society."

During the remainder of this year, various difficulties impeded the formation of the Society; but a wise and prudent course on the part of its friends, gradually removed them. In January 1804, a special meeting was held; "for the purpose of promoting the Bible Society," when it was—Resolved, That the title of the Society should be "The British and Foreign Bible Society," agreeably to the suggestion of the Secretary, and that he be requested to prepare a circular letter on the subject."

At length the preliminary and anxious labors of the Tract Society were happily and successfully terminated. On the 7th of March 1804, the British and Foreign Bible Society was fully

established. On this occasion, several members of the Tract Committee "explained the nature and design of the projected Society, demonstrated its necessity, and in a strain of good sense, temperate zeal, and perspicuous information, urged the importance of its immediate establishment."

Among the elected Committee of the Bible Society, were ten members of the Tract Committee. The Rev. Mr. Hughes was chosen one of its Secretaries.

The auspicious commencement of the new society was immediately communicated by Mr. Tarn to Mr. Charles. He wrote:—"The meeting consisted of about three hundred persons, from different denominations of Christians, and there was nothing but harmony throughout. A subscription was opened, and 700 shillings obtained on the spot. We cannot, my dear brother, but rejoice together, when we consider that this work had its beginning in a conversation we had one morning, which will never be forgotten. Hence, I was induced at the next meeting of the Tract Committee, to mention the scarcity of Bibles in Wales, and then it was the flame was kindled, which now breaks out, and which, I hope, will burn brighter and brighter, till that day of universal knowledge comes, when we shall no more teach our brother saying, 'Know the Lord,' but all shall know him from the least to the greatest. To the Lord be all the glory."

How wonderful are the ways of Divine Providence, in bringing forward from small events, the great agencies for blessing the world. Before Rev. Mr. Charles asked the little peasant girl, to repeat the text from which he preached, God had brought into being the Tract Society, and connected him with it. To it he could look for aid, to carry out the noble plan for furnishing the poor with the Bible, which the answer of that little girl suggested to his mind. In that Society he found the men whom God had prepared to sympathize with him, and cherish the plan, till at length it was consummated in the organization of the noblest institution which has blessed the world. B.

GUANO.

THIS manure, which was introduced into Britain about eight years ago, is the deposit from the guano, a sea-bird, which frequents the rocks and islets along the western coast of South America. To those who are aware of the countless myriads of sea-fowl which hover on these shores, and of the favorable nature of the climate for the preservation of their deposits, it will not seem

surprising that masses of guano should be found from twenty to sixty feet in depth, more or less covered and mixed up with earthy impurities. Accordingly, in the sheltered hollows and sinuosities of the rocks and islands, it is found in accumulations yielding from a few bushels to a thousand tons. It is collected in various degrees of purity, from the recent grayish-white droppings, to the ancient brown or reddish colored deposit; but, for common purposes, it is generally classed as gray or brown guano—the latter being by far the most plentiful, and forming the main article of import for agriculture. As shipped, it is a damp pulverulent mass, of a reddish-brown color, emits a pungent odor, and bears evidence of its origin in containing occasional fragments of eggs, bones, and feathers of the guano.

Though but recently known to us, guano has been long in use by the inhabitants of Peru; being so highly prized as a fertilizer in the time of the Incas, that it was declared a capital offence to kill the fowl by which it was deposited. 'On the sea-coast (says Garcilasso de la Vega, in his *Memoriales Reales*, 1609), from below Arequipa, as far as Tarapaca, which is more than two hundred leagues of coast, they use no other manure than that of marine birds, which exist, both great and small, on all the coasts of Peru, and go in flocks perfectly incredible, if not seen. They are reared on some uninhabited islands which exist on that coast, and the manure which they leave is of inconceivable amount. At a distance, the hills of it resemble the mounds on some snowy plain. In the time of the Incas, there was so much vigilance in guarding these birds, that, during the rearing season, no person was allowed to visit the islands under pain of death, in order that they might not be frightened and driven from their nests. Neither was it allowed to kill them at any time, either on or off the islands, under the same penalty.' Each district also had a portion of these islands allotted to it, the penalties for infringement of which were very severe; and from these circumstances it is probable that the Incas did not permit any remarkable consumption of this valuable manure beyond what was yearly deposited. As with the ancient, so with the modern inhabitants, even in their degraded and semi-barbarous state. They still set an especial value upon the fertilizing properties of this substance; and are known to come several hundred miles, each with his donkey or llama, for a quintal of guano, with which he marches homeward, trudging a rough road on foot, yet rejoicing over his odorous cargo.

But while the Peruvians and other sea-coast inhabitants protected the islands and rocks frequented by these birds, it was chiefly to the recent deposits that they directed their care, and thus the accumulations of unknown antiquity, covered up by

sand, or removed beyond their reach, have been left to be ransacked by modern enterprise. Nor was it without reason that the natives sought the fresh deposits with so much avidity. The dung of all animals, by being exposed to atmospheric influences, gives off its fertilizing properties; and thus it was that the recent deposits of guano were so carefully preserved and collected. However, as the decay of native intelligence under a foreign yoke, the abundance of modern shipping, and other causes, began to operate, the sea-fowl were less protected, they sought other habitants, fresh guano became scarce, and the ancient deposits began to be more keenly sought after, and transported to the sea-ports for sale. A manure so important could not be expected long to escape the attention of British traders; and as the requirements of home agriculture became better understood, guano was introduced into England. The trials made upon grass, turnips, and other crops, succeeded to a wish; and thus, since 1840, the demand for the article has so increased, that cargoes have been landed at every first-rate sea-port both in England and Scotland. When introduced, the price of guano was £25 a ton; and even at this rate, its application was found to remunerate the farmer; but artificial substitutes were soon proposed by the chemist, and these compositions had the effect of reducing the market price to £15, £12, or even £10 a ton, according to quality. At the latter rates it still remains, and proves a source of profit alike to the importer and farmer, and through them to the community.

It must be seen, however, that the supply of this manure is limited. In a few years the ancient accumulations will be exhausted; and though fresh deposits must be forming in some locality or other, still it can only be in comparatively small quantities. On this point, our best authority is Dr. M. Hamilton, late of Peru, who remarks as follows:—‘The guanós were still to be seen in vast numbers on the Moro of Arica during my first residence there in 1826, but not in such abundance as they were a few years prior to that period; for, during the war for independence, Arica was several times attacked both by sea and land, when the cannonading had the effect of scaring them from their haunts on the Moro. Since 1826, Arica has been much frequented by foreigners, some of whom often fired at, and otherwise annoyed the birds, which now have all but totally abandoned that part of the Peruvian coast. The guanós have hitherto existed on the coast of Peru in numbers which would appear incredible, except to those persons who have seen them. The greatest mass of guanós I ever saw was in 1836, at the Chincha Isles, which are only barren rocks in the Pacific Ocean, off Pisco, and about one hundred miles south from Callao. I saw the birds through a glass

from on board a vessel under easy sail, when the rock appeared to be a living mass; for the guanos seemed to be contending among themselves for a resting-place. They live on fish, and are expert fishers, for which they are beautifully formed by nature. The bill is three or four inches long, according to the age or size of the bird, and it is about one inch broad at the extremity, much curved, and altogether well adapted for hooking up the food, which rarely escapes. The quantity of guano manure accumulated on the Peruvian coast must be very great, and may be estimated thus:—Allowing the average number of these birds to be one million, which I consider is much within bounds, and that each bird has one ounce of droppings per day, we shall have not less than above thirty tons; and deducting one half of the above supposed quantity for evaporation and other casualties, there will still be above fifteen tons of this valuable substance produced every day. From what has been observed as to the habits and numbers of the guano, their frequenting promontories, declivities, and insulated rocks, it follows that their soil in certain localities must have accumulated to such an extent, as might induce those persons who may not have considered the subject, to expect that the guano is to be had in unlimited quantity; but for obvious reasons that must be a fallacious expectation.'

THE HERMIT WOMAN.

MR. CHARLES LANMAN gives the following interesting sketch of an old woman whom he recently visited, near the source of the Potomac river.

"Delighted, however, and deeply impressed, as I have been, by the scenery of this Alpine land, I have been far more interested in an old woman whom I have had the pleasure of seeing. Her name is Elizabeth Golding, or Goldizon. She resides in a log cabin entirely alone, directly at the foot of the gorge which has taken her name. She is of German origin, and represents herself as one hundred and twelve years of age. She was born, according to her own words, 'within a two days' ride of Philadelphia,' and her father was a soldier in the revolution under Washington, and she herself was in the immediate vicinity of the American camp at the defeat of Gen. Braddock, of which event she habitually recounts a great number of interesting and thrilling incidents, closing each paragraph with the remark, that the battle-field was wet—very wet—with blood. She has been husbandless and

childless for nearly half a century, and for many years has lived, as now, in the solitude of the mountains, utterly alone. Indeed, everything about the old woman is peculiar and strange. In stature she is quite small, and her hair (which is white as snow) is very long. When engaged in conversation, her countenance fires up exceedingly, and she accompanies each sentence with the most animated gestures. Her voice, though still strong, is altogether beyond her control, having an unnatural tone; and the wrinkles running entirely over her face and neck, are as deep as we might imagine them to be after having been furrowed by the tears of even one heart for so long a time as a century. She was clothed in the simplest manner, having upon her head a cap made of common brown cotton, a frock of blue home-spun cloth, and on her feet nothing but woolen socks. During the whole time that we were in her cabin she was smoking some bitter weed in a corn-cob pipe, and, though haggard and worn to a marvellous degree, she had a pleasant smile; and when either of her guests happened to utter something that was novel to her, she would exclaim, 'Oh, yes—that is wonderful!' Her only means of subsistence for years past had been obtained by making hickory brooms; but even this business she had been compelled to give up, for she could no more climb the mountains to obtain the proper material; and though she seemed to be perfectly certain that she would be provided for, she expressed the greatest dread of the county almshouse. We inquired as to her appetite, and she replied, 'Oh, I eat very little; I never eat much—sometimes nothing in a whole day, and never more than once a day, and I am well acquainted with hunger.' As to her sleep we also questioned her, and she said, 'that's what troubles me most; I cannot sleep now—I am so old; and so I lay on my bed all night thinking of my *great, good, and sweet Father in the Heavens.*' We asked her how she managed to obtain the necessaries of life, and she said she did not know, only that people who travelled the road sometimes stopped in to give her a little coffee or flour, her main stay being a small garden of vegetables, the brush fence around which has been built by her own hands; and this garden was just exactly the neatest one that I ever beheld. As to her sight, it was as good as ever, and she was unacquainted with the use of spectacles. We asked her how much money she would want to support her a year, and she replied that *ten dollars* would take care of her a long time—more than a year. As a matter of course, my companions and I made up a little purse for her benefit; and when we gave it to her it seemed as if she would embrace us in spite of us. Indeed, we made her a number of trifling presents; and she expressed her gratitude by weeping, and assuring us that

•

her 'Father in the Heavens' would bless us and make us happy wherever we might go. And I can assure the reader that the tears shed by that old woman of five score years and ten were not the only ones that sprung into the eyes on that occasion, albeit we were unused to weeping.

"But I have not yet given the reader an idea of the home of this lonely being; in truth, it baffles description. Her nearest neighbor is some four miles off, and her only companions in her solitude are a little dog and a cat. Her cabin stands near the water's edge, and directly on the hill-side; it is without a window, but light in abundance comes in from the gaping roof and sides of the black and mouldering log habitation, the chimney of which is of mud and sticks, and in a dilapidated condition. Her bedstead is made of small pine sticks, with the bark still on; her couch consisting of hemlock boughs covered with straw, upon which are two or three wretchedly-worn bedquilts. In one corner of the room are two or three shelves, where are displayed her cooking and eating utensils, the original cost of which (and they were very old and worn) could not have been more than one dollar. An old stool answers the purpose of a chair, and a board nailed to the side of the cabin is her only table. Hanging from the logs at the side of her bed are two or three old gowns, which help to keep out the air and the rain. She is also the owner of a spinning-wheel; and from the crevices of the logs around, above, and everywhere, depend bunches of herbs and faded flowers, which she has gathered in her rambles; but there was a taste and neatness displayed in the arrangement of the miserable furniture of the room which gave it a really cheerful aspect. We asked the old woman if she never apprehended any danger while thus living so utterly alone, and she replied, 'Of course not: who would harm a poor forsaken being like me? I ain't afraid even of the bears; for it is only last fall that one came down here and scratched up my garden, but I drove him off with a big stick.' Up to this point everything we saw and heard concerning this aged woman was strange; but when we rose to depart we were still more astonished to have her rivet our attention by her wild movements, and address us to the following effect: 'Men, I thank you for your goodness; I cannot read, but my Great Father has told me, in my heart, all about it. There is a Heaven, men, and it's a very happy place; and there is a hell, men, and it's a very dreadful place; they both will never have an end. Now, men, good-by; you have been good to the old woman, but we must part; good-by; we shall meet once more at the judgment, but for only a short time. Live, men, so that you may get to Heaven.' And so we left this strange, strange being; and I am confident that

ong after her bones shall have mingled with the dust one trio of
ravellers, if still living, will remember with wonder and pleasure
their interview with the Hermit Woman of the Alleghanies."

OSSIAN'S ADDRESS TO THE SUN,

Literally translated from the Gaelic,

(BY P. MCGREGOR, ESQ.)

O thou that travellest above,
Round as my father's iron shield,
From whence proceed thy cheering beams,—
Thine unexhausted light, O Sun?
Thou comest forth in beauteous night—
The stars forthwith conceal their paths;
The Moon withdraws, pale-orbed, from heav'n,
And hides her under western waves.
Thou movest in thy path alone:
Who could attend thine awful course?
The strongest oaks are stretched on earth;
The hills and rocks consume with age;
The mighty ocean ebbs and flows;
The joy of night* is lost on high:
Thou alone dost never change,
Rejoicing in unfading light!
When tempests darken round the world,
With thunder hoarse and lightning dire,
Thou lookest tranquil on the strife,
And smilest 'mid the rushing war.

But vain is all thy light to me;
For I shall see thy face no more,
Or when thou spreadest thy golden locks
On the face of the eastern clouds,
Or when thou tremblest in the west,
At thy dusky gates on the main.
But thou, perchance, art like myself,
Now strong, in course of time to fail—
Our years alike going down to gloom,
And hastening rapid to a close!
Do thou, therefore, enjoy thy days,
O Sun, while in thy strength of youth:
For dark and unpleasant is old age—

* The Moon.

Like the feeble light of the waning Moon,
When she looks on the fields from clouds,
Hoar mist upon the mountain's side,
The blast of the North on the plain,
The wayfarer tired and slow.*

A MOORISH EXECUTION.

THE American Consul at Tangier, G. V. Brown, Esq., furnishes the following second-hand description of an execution which took place without the walls of Tangier some years since. Capital punishment, he says, is rare in that country, only three instances having occurred in fifteen years, and the Moors are not allowed to witness them. The victims on this occasion were two young men, accused of having been engaged in contraband trade in oxen with Spanish infidels. One was a tall, handsome young man, who had been engaged by a Frank as a gardener. At the spot where the execution took place grew a bunch of beautiful white lilies.

"Here, where we now stand, was then the Jewish slaughter ground, and this (touching with the muzzle of his gun the group of lilies to which I have referred) had been selected as the spot for the execution. Here was found a depraved-looking Moor, dressed as a butcher, holding in his hand a small knife about half a foot in length. He was a stranger, and had been hired to act on the occasion; for the Mohammedan butchers of Tangier, who are the persons constrained to perform such service when a regular executioner cannot be found, had taken refuge in the sanctuary of Mesmoody; and had it not been for this person offering his services, the authorities would have been much perplexed to obey the mandate of the Sultan.

"A morbid curiosity chained me to the spot, although I foresaw I should have to witness a scene of horror. Some wrangling now ensued between the Kaid's soldiers and the executioner as to the reward the latter was to receive for decapitating the poor wretches, who, all the time, were standing by, compelled to listen to this bartering for their blood. The butcher insisted that four dollars had been offered him for one head alone, and contended for a like amount for the other. The Kaid unwillingly yielded the point, and immediately the first victim, who was already half dead with terror, was thrown down on the ground by the execu-

* The lines correspond to those of the original.

tioner, who, kneeling on his breast, put the knife to his throat. I turned away, a violent struggle ensued, and I heard the executioner say, 'Give me another knife—mine won't cut.' I looked around; the wretched man was lying with his throat half cut, his breast heaving, and every limb writhing. My companion now loudly reproached the party for their cold-blooded atrocity, and called upon them to put the suffering man out of his misery. After a time another knife was handed by a soldier to the executioner, and the head was severed. The soldiers shouted feebly 'May God prolong the life of our Sultan!' though I observed that many of them were as much horrified as ourselves.

"I remained riveted to the spot, where yet another victim awaited his fate. This was the fine-looking fellow of whom I have spoken. Again there took place a bartering for his blood; the Kaid denying his late promise, and declaring that he would not give even the four dollars already earned, unless the head of the second criminal was cut off. To this the executioner was at length forced to consent. The culprit now begged to be untied. This request being acceded to, he took off his galea, and giving it to the soldier who had performed this act of kindness to him, said—'Accept this; we shall meet in another world.' His turban he threw to another who had uttered a word of pity instead of joining in the insulting shout of the soldiery; and walking steadily to the spot where his companion lay, cried out with a distinct voice—'There is no God but one, and Mohammed is his prophet.' Then turning to the executioner, he loosened his girdle, and gave it to him, saying, 'For the love of God, sever my head with better despatch than you did that of my brother.' He laid himself flat on the ground, yet moist with blood; and the knee of the ruffian, for so he deserved to be called, was placed on the Reefian's breast. A horseman was now seen galloping towards the party.

"'A reprieve!' shouted my friend. 'Stop! stop!' The executioner withheld his knife.

"'It is only the son of the Governor,' exclaimed a soldier; 'he's coming to see the execution. Wait for him.'

"I rushed away in horror; and soon afterward we saw the soldiers bearing in their hands the two bleeding heads.

"As we felt no desire to continue our walk, we waited with the soldiers until the gates were opened. A fresh dispute took place between them and the executioner, who demanded protection from the populace, which the soldiers refused to give, unless he gave them two dollars, the half of his earnings. This the butcher refused to do, and he was left to his fate.

"No sooner were the gates opened than a troop of boys rushed out and attacked the executioner with stones. The man fled into

the country, pursued by the young mob—and it was reported he had fallen senseless some three miles from the town, covered with a hundred bruises.

“On entering the town the soldiers seized the first Jew they met, and obliged him to salt the heads, which were subsequently hung from the top of a square tower on the town wall fronting the great market-place.

“As I returned homeward, I met in the little rok a Reefian, whom I knew to be a cousin of the deceased gardener, armed with a brace of pistols and a dagger, hurrying along. On asking him what was the matter, he replied, ‘I am about to revenge the death of my relation on that accursed stranger, who alone was found ready to cause our blood to flow.’

“Next day it was reported the executioner had been shot and buried on the spot. No investigation was had by the authorities of Tangier; and the cousin returned and remained unmolested.

“After three days’ exposure, the heads were sent to the Sultan, to convince his imperial majesty that his orders had been obeyed. They were met on the road by a courier bringing a reprieve, who was said to have been detained in consequence of one of the rivers being impassable from heavy rains.”

THE MIGRATION OF PLANTS.

BY E. D. MANSFIELD.

IF one could write the history of the migration of plants, even in modern ages, it would be one of the most surprising, instructive, and entertaining chapters ever written. It would show the fruit and flowers emerging like man himself from Central Asia—following the Euphrates, the coasts of Arabia, and the isles of the sea—pursuing the footsteps of civilization—taking new hues in new climes—and, like man, improved by colonization and by culture. We should see, in a later period, the New World rendering back its tribute to the Old. We should find the plants and flowers which were native to the Potomac, the Mississippi, and the Amazon, filling the gardens of Europe with new bloom, and feeding millions who, but for them, could never have lived. And we may see, in this returning tide of products from the New World, a symbolical representation of that tide of light and liberty which shall flow from the western continent to the land of the Orient.

Let us notice, as an illustration of this principle, the migration of some of the most known plants. To begin with flowers: The tube rose was brought from the East Indies, where it grows wild

in Java and Ceylon. The full tube roses were first raised from seed at Leyden, and have since formed quite an article of traffic. The crown imperial was brought in the sixteenth century from Persia to Constantinople, carried thence to Vienna, and dispersed over Europe. The Persian lily, nearly related to it, was brought from Suza to Constantinople.

The African and French marigolds were supposed to have been brought from Africa in the time of Charles V., but are really native to Peru, in South America.

The Guernsey lily was brought from Japan. A ship returning from Japan was wrecked on the coast of Guernsey, where the bulbs took root, and whence it bears its name.

Of the numerous genus of the ranunculus, there are said to be more than a thousand different kinds; but the principal part of them, and those most esteemed, were brought from Asia. This emigration took place at the time of the Crusades. They were sent to Constantinople by the officers of the Sultan; from thence they were carried to Marseilles and dispersed over Europe.

The amaryllis formosissima came from South America, whence it was brought by De Tovar, a physician, and there it was subsequently found to be indigenous.

We might continue this list of emigrant flowers to an indefinite extent; and in every country of high civilization the foreign flowers will probably be found the most numerous. In this country we are deeply indebted to the southern portion of this continent. Unless we are mistaken, some of the finest modern flowers exhibited here have come from South America. Of the numerous family of the cacti, the finest have originated in Mexico, Guatemala, and the central provinces. Over a great part of that country they seem to be the dominant plant, covering vast plains of little fertility. On the northern rim of the territory in which this plant is indigenous, it is unseemly and unpretending; but under the warm sun of the tropics it bursts forth into one of the most various, brilliant, and curious flowers which has ever been given to man.

Let us turn from flowers to fruits. The apricot is a native of Armenia.

The plum, although found wild in this country, is supposed to have originated in Asia. One variety (the damascene) took its name from Damascus, the Syrian city.

The peach is a native of Persia, whence it spread over Europe and this country.

The nectarine is also a native of Persia, introduced into England in the sixteenth century.

Cherries are said to come from Cerasus, a city of Pontus, whence Lucullus brought them after the Mithridatic war. They extended

wherever the Romans spread their arms, and were introduced into England in the first century.

The mulberry is a native of Persia, whence it was introduced into Europe about the sixteenth century.

The apple, quince, and vine are natives of many countries, and it is not known that they belong specially to any one. This review, however, shows that some of the finest and most delicious of all our fruits originated in Persia, Armenia, and other parts of Asia, whence they have been transplanted, naturalized, and improved by culture, under the auspices of civilization.

Let us look a little further into the more important branches of agriculture. How stand the origin and propagation of the grains and grasses by which men and animals are sustained?

Prior to the fifteenth century, barley and wheat were almost the only grains in use through Europe, or even Asia. All of the most important articles of vegetable food known to our day were unknown prior to the sixteenth century. The maize, or Indian corn, is a native of America, unknown to Europe or Asia till introduced from this country; yet, in the course of two or three centuries, it has been introduced throughout the Old World wherever the climate is not too cold. The potato is another article of vegetable food originating in America, and probably the most universal article of food used.

Buckwheat is a native of Northern Asia, and is not a cereal plant, although classed among them. It was introduced into France in the sixteenth century, and soon became the food of the common people. We need not add other illustrations of the principle that the migration of plants has attended the migration of men, and, like that of men, has improved their condition, and been one of the means of advancing civilization. It is a beautiful law of social nature that man, the wanderer, in his struggles for a better condition, in his labor for subsistence, in his search after higher pleasure, in his very exile from the lost garden, *diffuses* in all regions by his labors the blessings of a benign Providence, brings out the odor of universal creation, and chants the sweet music of universal harmony.

DRESS.

(From an old English author.)

THE first clothes we read of were immediately after the fall, when "Adam and Eve sewed fig-leaves together and made themselves aprons." A poor sort of covering! but when God turned them out of paradise he provided warmer clothes for them: "Unto

Adam and also unto his wife did the Lord God make coats of skin, and clothed them."—After this, garments of knit-work, then woven clothes, came into use. At Cæsar's arrival, the Britons in the south part of the isle were attired with skins; but as civility grew under the Romans, they assumed the Roman habit. The English or Saxons, at their first arrival in Britain, wore long jackets, were shorn all over the head, excepting about the crown, and under that an iron ring. Afterwards they wore loose and large white garments, with broad borders of divers colors, as the Lombards. Somewhat before the conquest they were all gallant, with coats to the mid-knee, head shorn, beard shaved, face painted, and arms laden with bracelets. But *totus homo in vultu est*, as the whole man is seen by his face, it will not be amiss to observe, that Edward the confessor wore very short cropt hair, whiskers and beard exceeding long. William the conqueror wore short hair, large whiskers, and a short round beard. Robert, his eldest son, it is well known, used short hose, and from thence called courthose, courtoise, curtis: on his monument, yet extant at Gloucester, he is portrayed with short stockings of mail reaching scarce up to the place where some garter below the knee; no breeches, but a coat, or rather shirt, of mail instead of them. However, breeches and stockings are new terms, and, in the sense we now understand them, different things, being at first one and the same, all made of one piece of cloth, and then called hose.

William Rufus wore the hair of his head a degree longer than his father; but no beard or whiskers. In 1104 (4 Henry I.) Serlo bishop of Seez preaching at Charenton before the king against long hair, caused him and all his courtiers to get their hair cropt as soon as they left the church; and accordingly Henry I. in his broad seal (as appears in Sandford) has no hair, beard, or whiskers. Stephen observed the same fashions. Henry II. brought in the short mantle, and therefore had the name of court mantle. In his time the use of silk was first brought out of Greece into Sicily, and other parts of Christendom. Richard I. in his first and second broad seals, has longish hair, no beard or whiskers. John, in his broad seal, has short hair, large whiskers, and short curled hair. The ladies in the three last mentioned reigns wore long cloaks from their shoulders to their heels, buttoned round the neck, and then thrown over the shoulders, hanging down behind.

Henry III. wore whiskers, and a short round beard. The same king returning out of France, in 1243, commanded it to be proclaimed all over the kingdom, *ut qualibet civitate vel burgo quatuor cives vel burgenses honorabiliores ei obviam procederent in vestibis pretiosis et desiderabilibus*; his design in which was to obtain presents from them. Edward I. wore short hair, and no whiskers or

beard. Edward II. continued this fashion. Edward III. in his first and second broad seals, has long hair, but no beard or whiskers; in his third broad seal, shorter hair, large whiskers, and a two-pointed beard; and on his monument in Westminster Abbey, a very long beard. The same king, in our common prints of him, is generally pictured with a sort of hat on; but as hats are a deal more modern, wherever I see him drawn with a hat on, I conclude that picture to be a counterfeit. And indeed it may be questioned, whether there are any pictures of any of our kings painted before his time now extant. Philippa, consort to this king, according to her monument at Westminster, wore a pretty sort of network cawl over her hair, with a long end of the same hanging down each ear.

In this reign I conceive it was that history says, "the commons were besotted in excess of apparel, going some in wide surcoats reaching to their loins; some in a garment reaching to their heels, close before, and strutting out on both sides, so that on the back they make men seem women, and this they call by a ridiculous name gown. Their hoods are little, tied under the chin, and buttoned like the women's, but set with gold, silver, and precious stones. Their lerrippes reach to their heels, all jagged. They have another weed of silk, which they call paltocks, without any breeches. Their girdles are of gold and silver; their shoes and pattens snouted, and piked above a finger long, crooking upwards, and fastened to the knees with chains of gold or silver."

In 1369 they began to use caps of divers colors, especially red, with costly linings; and in 1372 they first began to wanton it in a new round curtail weed called a cloak, in Latin *armiclausa* (*q. armiclausa*), as only covering the shoulders.

But this cloak, as I take it, was no more than a monk's hood, or cowl. Richard II. in his picture in Westminster abbey is drawn with short curling hair and a small curling two-pointed beard. Queen Anne, Richard II.'s consort (who first taught the English women to ride on side-saddles, who heretofore rid astride), brought in high head attire, piked with horns, and long-trained gowns. Their high heads had sometimes one point, sometimes two, shaped like sugar loaves; to which they had a sort of streamers fastened, which wantoned and hung down behind, and turning up again, were tied to their girdles. Henry IV. wore long hair, whiskers, and a double-pointed beard; in his time the long-pocketed sleeve was much in vogue. Henry V. wore much the same: in this reign the shoes were remarkably broad, which Camden speaking of, says, "Not many years after, it was proclaimed, that no man should have his shoes broader at the toes than six inches. And women trimmed themselves with foxes' tails under their gar-

ments, as they do now with French farthingals; and men with absurd short garments. Henry VI. Edward IV. Richard III. and Henry VII. wore their hair moderately long, no whiskers or beard. Henry VIII. had short cropt hair, large whiskers, and a short curled beard, his gown furred, the upper parts of his sleeves bowed out with whalebone, and open from his shoulders to his wrists, and there buttoned with diamonds; about his neck and wrists short ruffles. Queen Mary wore a close head-dress, with a broad flat long end or train hanging down behind; strait sleeves down to her wrist; there, and on her neck a narrow ruffle. On the 27th of May, 1555, (2 Queen Mary) Sir William Cecil, being then at Calais, bought, as appears by his MS. Diary, three hats for his children. These are the first hats I have yet read of; and it should seem, at their first coming in, they were more worn by children than men, who yet kept to caps.

Queen Elizabeth wore no head-dress, but her own or false hair in great plenty, extravagantly frizzled and curled; a bob or jewel dropt on her forehead; a huge laced double ruff, long piked stays, a hoop petticoat, extended like a gocart; her petticoats prodigious full; her sleeves barrelled and hooped from the shoulders to the elbows, and again from the elbows to the wrists. In one picture of her, she is drawn as above, with five bobs, one on her forehead, one above each ear, and one at each ear. This queen is said to have been the first person in England who wore stockings: before her time both men and women wore hose, that is breeches, or drawers, and stockings all of one piece of cloth. Sir Philip Sidney, one of her favorites, wore a huge high collar, stiffened with whalebone; a very broad stiff laced ruff; his doublet (body and sleeves) bombasted or barrelled, and pinked and slashed all over, small oblong buttons, and a loose long cloak. The custom of men sitting uncovered in the church, is certainly very decent, but not very ancient. Dr. Cox, bishop of Ely, died 1581, whose funeral procession I have seen an admirable old drawing of; as likewise of the assembly sitting in the choir to hear the funeral sermon, all covered and having their bonnets on. John Fox the martyr-logist, who died in 1587, when an old man (as appears by his picture) wore a strait cap, covering his head and ears, and over that a deepish crowned shallow-brimmed slouched hat. This is the first hat I have yet observed in any picture. Hats being thus come in, men began then to sit uncovered in the church, as I take it; for as hats look not so well on men's heads in places of public worship as hoods or bonnets (the former wear), this might probably be the first occasion of their doing so.

James I. wore short hair, large whiskers, and a short beard; also a ruff and ruff ruffles. In 1612 (10 Jac. 1.) Mr. Hawley, of

Gray's Inn, coming to court one day, Maxwell, a Scotsman, led him out of the room by a black string which he wore in his ear, a fashion then much in use; but this had like to have caused warm blood, had not the king made up the quarrel. Prince Henry, eldest son of James the 1st, wore short hair, filletted and combed upward, short barrelled breeches, and silk thistles or carnations at the tie of his shoes. The young Lord Harrington, this prince's contemporary, is painted in the same manner, with the addition of ear-drops, a double ruff, and barrelled doublet.

The great tub farthingal was much worn in this reign; the famous countess of Essex is pictured in a monstrous hoop of this sort. In conformity to the ladies of that age, the gentlemen fell into the ridiculous fashion of trunk hose, an affectation of the same kind, and carried to so great a height by stuffing them out, that they might more properly have been called the farthingal breeches.

Charles I. wore long hair, particularly one lock longer than the rest, hanging on the left side, large whiskers, a piked beard, a ruff, shoe-roses, and a falling band. His queen wore a ruff standing on each side and behind, but her bosom open. Sir Francis Bacon, who died in 1626, in his fine monument at St. Alban's is represented with monstrous shoe roses, and great bombast paned hose, reaching to the knees. About 1641, the forked shoes came into fashion, almost as long again as the feet, not less an impediment to the action of the foot than to reverential devotion, for our boots and shoes were so long snouted, we could hardly kneel. But as a short foot was soon thought to be more fashionable, full as much art became necessary to give it as short an appearance as possible. About 1650 both men and women had the whim of bringing down the hair of their heads to cover their foreheads, so as to meet their eyebrows. In 1652, John Owen, dean of Christ Church and vice-chancellor of Oxford, went in querpo, like a young scholar, with powdered hair, his band strings with very large tassels, a large set of ribands at his knees, with tags at the ends of them; Spanish leather boots with large lawn tops, and his hat mostly cocked. After the close-stool-pan sort of hat, which had now been many years in wear, came in the sugar-loaf or high-crowned hat; these, though mightily affected by both sexes, were so very incommodious, as that, every puff of wind blowing them off, they required the almost constant employment of one hand to secure them. Charles II. in 1660 appears to have worn a large thick cravat with tassels, a short doublet, large ruffles, short boots with great tops, a very short cloak, and long hair (one lock on the right side longer than ordinary), all pulled forward, and divided like a long wig on each side of his face: soon after he wore a periwig.

There is no end of the whims, vagaries, and fancies in dress which men and women have run into. Whole volumes might be wrote on the subject. However, these rude notes may serve as a sketch of the former times.

Old fables tell us of one Epimenides, who after a sleep of fifty years awaked with amazement, finding a new world everywhere both of men and fashions. Let this sleep go (as it well may) for a fabulous invention, the effects of it, his amazement, I am sure, might have been credible enough, though the sleep had been shorter by many years. In some countries, if men should but put on those clothes which they left off but four or five years before, and use those fashions which were then in use, they would look even to themselves ridiculous, and unto many little less than monstrous.

AUSTRALIA.

THIS vast and interesting region consists of the island of New-Holland—so large as to be denominated a continent—and the adjacent islands, New-Guinea, Van Diemen's Land, &c. AUSTRALIA PROPER, or New-Holland, the subject of this present notice, is almost equal in extent to Europe, its northern extremity almost touching the 10th degree of southern latitude, stretching southward to the 38th, and lying between the 113th and 154th degrees of east longitude. It thus comprehends within its compass varieties of climate varying from the tropical heat to the milder temperature of Virginia or Tennessee.

The first attempt at settling this colony took place so recently as 1787, when the British Government, perplexed as to the disposal of its convict population, determined on shipping it off to these then unexplored regions. Accordingly, in the spring of the above-mentioned year, a small fleet, under the command of Capt. Charles Philip, afterward first Governor, sailed, having on board 757 convicts—565 male and 192 female—which number, by the addition of officials, crew, and military guard, was augmented to 1000 persons. The vessels anchored at Port Jackson, the harbor of Sydney, and thus the seeds of a future empire were planted in January, 1788. So rapid has been the increase of the population, that up to the middle of the year 1851, and before the discovery of the gold-fields had time to affect it, the white population, after a lapse of only 64 years, and in spite of numerous drawbacks, increased to more than 330,000, irrespective of Van Diemen's Land, where no attempt at settlement was made till after the commencement of the present century.

That portion of the Australian Colonies now under notice is divided into New South Wales, capital, Sydney; Victoria (called also Port Philip, and Australia Felix), capital, Melbourne; South Australia, capital, Adelaide; Western Australia (or the Swan River Settlement), capital, Perth; also, the district of Moreton Bay (chief town of same name), at present included in the New South Wales division, but whose rising importance will soon cause it to be elevated into a separate colony, managing its own affairs.

New South Wales, as before stated, is the parent colony, and received its designation from Captain Cook, from a fancied resemblance that it bore to the southern portion of the principality of that name. According to the most recent division, it includes the district east of longitude 141° E., and stretching from 26° S. latitude to that boundary. It has the advantage of several rivers (or rather water-channels, as they would be considered in America), the principal being the Murray, Clarence, and Brisbane, though all these are unfortunately subject in some seasons to drought—a peculiar and disagreeable feature of nearly all the Australian streams. The soil is, nevertheless, very prolific, and the climate admirable. Dr. Lang, member of the Legislative Council of New South Wales (a Scotchman by birth, but an Australian by adoption, and so enthusiastic in his views of his new home that his statements should be received with a certain amount of caution), says:

“For eight months of the year, from March to November, the climate of New South Wales is delightful. The sky is seldom clouded, and for weeks together the sun looks down in unveiled beauty. Refreshing showers in ordinary seasons are not unfrequent, and it sometimes rains as heavily as within the tropics. It seldom freezes in Sydney, and never snows, but fires are requisite during the day in the winter months, and for a considerable time longer in the mornings and evenings. During summer the heat is rarely oppressive, the thermometer seldom rising higher than 75 degrees.”

The lumber growth of the northern part of New South Wales (the Moreton Bay District) consists of the red and white cedar, mahogany, tulipwood, rosewood, ironwood, lightwood, sassafras, corkwood, the Australian palm, &c., all of which arrive at the greatest perfection. The soil also produces wheat, Indian corn, barley, and the sweet potato (some specimens of the latter weighing 30 pounds!) while arrow-root, cotton, coffee, tobacco, the sugar-cane, and the guava may be profitably grown; and experiments have proved that silk may be procured, a plantation of the mulberry-tree having thriven extraordinarily. There are also

some flourishing vineyards on the Macleay, and a kind of wild fig is highly spoken of.

The southern part of the colony consists principally of land in possession of squatters, as they are termed, or proprietors of those immense herds of sheep and cattle, whose produce has till lately formed the staple export of Australia generally. The vast tract of land over which these flocks and herds roam—stretching in a straight line about 1100 miles across the country—is not the actual property of the squatters, but is merely hired of the Government from year to year, each applicant receiving a license for a “run,” as it is termed in the local designation, incurring the risk of being removed should any *bona fide* purchaser present himself. In consequence of the very favorable terms on which the proprietors of stock are enabled to hire these runs, paying a merely nominal price for the privilege and the encouragement generally held out to them by the Government, the squatting interest is the most wealthy and influential in the colony.

Another source of future wealth, when the resources of the colony shall have been fully developed, will be found in the fisheries—all the sea-coasts, bays, and mouths of rivers being said to abound in delicious fish, some of which appear to be peculiar to those waters, and are certainly not known in America or Europe. Mullet, bream, whiting, cod, and turtle, together with crabs, shrimps, and oysters, in great abundance, are, however, to be met with. Kangaroos are common in the northern districts, as are also black swans, geese, and other aquatic birds. The brush turkey frequents the forest lands.

Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, resembles in its rapid growth some of the great American Western cities. Its population cannot be less than between 70,000 and 80,000, and is characterized by intense activity and enterprise in all the departments of business. This city is quite metropolitan in its character, having a magnificent Government House, abundant church accommodations, a beautiful Cathedral dedicated to the Roman Catholic faith, well-endowed schools (more particularly that of Sydney College), good theatres, handsome taverns, and a public pleasure-ground called Hyde-Park. There are also many suburban villages, communicated with by means of stage-coaches and omnibuses. Paramatta, about fifteen miles from Sydney, is a town of considerable importance, containing about 5000 inhabitants, and having a street a mile in length. It is connected with Sydney by means of a railway. Other considerable towns are Windsor, Maitland, Newcastle, Bathurst, and Goulburn.

The total white population of the two districts of New South Wales and Port Philip (which are classed together in the official

papers), previous to the great emigration consequent on the discovery of the gold-fields, was about 270,000; the value of imports for New South Wales alone was £1,700,000 sterling; of exports, £2,000,000; tonnage of shipping entered outward, 210,300; inward, 198,400; the quantity of the single article of wool exported was 23,500,000 lbs., valued at upward of £1,250,000; of tallow, more than 15,000,000 lbs., worth £580,000—these two items, it will be observed, forming the staple produce of the districts; the remainder consisting of live stock (principally horses for India, the Australian breed being highly esteemed), oil, copper, and copper regulus, undressed leather, and timber.

Port Philip (now called Victoria) is decidedly the "pet" colony of Australia. It covers an area of about 80,000 square miles, or more than 50,000,000 acres, and is about 500 miles in direct length east and west, with a coast line of about 600 miles. It is not more than seventeen years since it became rumored that a few adventurous owners of flocks and herds, crossing over from Van Diemen's Land, had found an endless undulating tract of sweet, abundant pasture, spread out for their use beneath a cloudless, sunny sky, and watered by pleasant streams. Sir Thomas Mitchell, the Surveyor-General, who explored it in 1836, found it to afford so striking a contrast to the arid deserts over which he had so long travelled his weary way, that he gave it the name of Australia Felix. This fine territory immediately became the scene of the wildest of all colonizing manias, and though reckless speculation swept many individuals into ruin, the natural capabilities of the district could not be annihilated, and thus the place, which a few years since fed a few black savages and kangaroos, was occupied, before the discovery of the gold-fields, by upwards of 65,000 inhabitants of European origin, and fed 500,000 horned cattle, and more than 5,000,000 of sheep, producing annually above 12,000,000 lbs. of wool for exportation.

All who have spoken from experience of Victoria, (as it has been called since its erection into a separate district,) declare it to be more uniformly rich than the older colony, especially throughout a border stretching about 50 miles from the coast. It has several rivers: the Yarra-Yarra,—on which stands Melbourne, the capital,—the Glenelg, the Taylor, the Barwoon, the Glengary, &c., flowing from the mountain-ranges into the sea. They are not of large volume of water, nor of great length, but they appear to keep the territory well watered, and are not subject to parching drought. The Murray, Murrumbidgee and the Severn also touch the borders of this district. The scenery is beautiful and diversified. Sometimes continued successions of rolling downs, covered with soft, beautiful grass, and diversified with majestic trees;

while in other places, away from the more fertile and frequented districts, are precipices, torrents, and shattered peaks. Some of the mountains are wooded to the summits, and through the openings may be seen immeasurable plains where sheep widely dot the landscape. But the following extract from a London publication will show that this beautiful spot is not without its *petites misères*:

"One unpleasant fact about this country, is the extraordinary number of malicious little insects. First, there are the musketoos, then there are countless varieties of ants—of all sizes up to an inch in length; the largest are, on account of their ferocity, appropriately named 'colonial bulldogs.' Their bite is severe, as I can personally testify. In addition, we have centipedes, not to forget spiders as large as the top of a tea-cup."

Melbourne, the capital, at the other end of the land-locked bay of Port Philip, has a population approaching to 50,000, and is partly built of brick and partly of granite. Steamboats ply daily to the neighboring ports, and at intervals to Sydney and Hobart Town. Across the bay, which is one of the safest and most capacious in the world, is the rapidly-rising town of Geelong, to which a steamboat runs.

Our space will not permit us to enter fully into the productions of the different districts into which Victoria is subdivided—we shall, therefore, speak of them generally, premising that they are all better watered than the older settlements of New South Wales. The soil is very fertile, averaging 30 bushels of wheat an acre, though Dr. Lang mentions an instance where 65 have been raised, and it is a peculiar feature that those tracts of new lands best adapted for the plow are naturally clear of timber and brushwood. The vine, olive, mulberry, tobacco, all flourish here, and at Geelong is a settlement of vine-growers from the south of France, who produce large quantities of excellent wine. Wheat, oats, barley, potatoes and maize are staple agricultural productions. The total value of exports from Victoria in 1850 was estimated at £820,000, composed principally of the following, namely: live stock, (horses, horned cattle, and sheep,) valued at £33,000; salt provisions, £23,000; skins, £3,000; tallow, £110,000; wool, about £590,000; the remainder consisting of timber, soap, leather, butter and cheese, &c.

South Australia occupies an area of 300,000 square miles, or nearly 20,000,000 of acres. Though not a mountainous district, it has sufficient inequalities of surface to redeem it from the character of flat monotony. The general character of the country, unless in the great alluvial plains, which form its surface riches, is that of gently undulating ground, with forest glades and clumps.

Thousands of acres have been broken up from which it has not been found necessary to remove a single tree, and in other parts, where the wood was more abundant, the process of "girdling," or destroying the sap, was found sufficient for bringing the whole field into cultivation the first year, and removing one tree after another at the farmer's leisure. There is little natural water communication, but the hardness and evenness of the surface render road-making an easy operation. Although this colony is not subject to the severe periodical droughts which have entailed so much distress on the older districts, still it appears that in many parts of the country the inhabitants are compelled to depend upon their wells for a certain supply, though an unlimited quantity of water may be obtained anywhere at a depth of from 20 to 100 feet.

The principal river, the Murray, is about 1,500 miles in length, but how far it may be useful commercially is still matter of doubt. Along its course are quantities of lagoons, or small lakes, and as it rises, which it does periodically (from July till December, when it attains a height of about 17 feet above its winter level,) it fills all these, and ultimately lays the flats under water. The climate is one of the most genial that is to be found, being a continued succession of spring and summer; for the so-called winter is without frost or snow, and the country is then clothed with verdure and the trees with foliage. There are no endemic diseases, fevers, or agues, and the dry, warm, elastic atmosphere is peculiarly favorable to asthmatic and pulmonary complaints. According to observations made in 1844-45, the coldest day was in June, when the thermometer was as low as $47\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and the warmest in January, when it was $106\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$.* Wheat, barley, tobacco, the mulberry, and the vine, all thrive greatly; apples, pears, the citron, figs, plums, peaches, almonds, oranges, medlars, pine-apples, bananas and guavas, and the water-melon are also produced. Farming appears to be a very remunerative employment, but not equal to "squattling," which, however, requires a large capital to embark in with any chance of success. The mineral wealth of South Australia is its most remarkable feature, and it is from this source that emigration on a large scale was first attracted to it. There are a great variety of ornamental stones—though these are, of course, viewed as a question of future commercial greatness, of comparatively small importance—jasper, agate, opal, &c. Lead mines have been discovered and worked profitably—as also iron. But the copper mines have proved hitherto by far the most prolific in their yield, and have been worked with most astonishing results, though

* Australia is on the opposite side of the globe, and when in the United States we have winter, the Australians have summer, and vice versa.

the original discovery of this valuable mineral was the effect of accident—the falling of a piece of rock disclosing the ore to two gentlemen who were out surveying, and who, maintaining secrecy, purchased a section of 80 acres at the lowest government price, £1 per acre, and very shortly afterward refused the tempting offer of £27,000 for their bargain. They afterward found it necessary to purchase 100 acres of adjoining land, for which, however, in consequence of competition of other bidders, owing to their secret leaking out, they had to pay £2,210. But the excitement attendant on this discovery had scarcely had time to subside, when another monster mine was discovered—the celebrated Burra-Burra. Here the richest ore was found in large masses before there was any necessity for sinking shafts.

Adelaide, the capital, was only founded in 1836, and had, in 1850, a population of 16,000, and 3,000 houses. It is six miles from the port, to which a railway is now making, if the gold mania has not taken the laborers to the “diggings.” It is a handsome town, and contains already many fine public buildings, and a beautiful park, with a river running through it. Gawler Town, a bustling place, is about 23 miles distant. Round Adelaide are scattered various villages, with from 100 to 300 inhabitants, one of which, Klemzing, a German settlement, is described as being so purely national that the inhabitants might have been supposed to have brought it over from Prussia.

The exports of this colony in 1851 exceeded £550,000, consisting chiefly of copper, wool, and tallow—the tonnage inward and outward in the same year was 170,497. Wool was exported to the amount of 2,200 lbs., and copper 10,000 tons, while the population was then not more than 67,000.

Of the remaining colony, Western Australia, we need say but little, as sad experience has proved that it at present affords no inducement for settlers; though, when a large population shall have grown within its boundary, the natural advantages which it appears to possess may make it an object of greater attention; but it is at present completely isolated from the more thickly inhabited part of Australia. With a population of less than 5,000, it covers an area of 1,000,000 square miles! It is said that immense seams of coal have been recently discovered, and that iron, zinc, copper, lead and quicksilver are abundant, and that it is admirably adapted for cattle and sheep farming; but the disastrous result of the first attempt at settlement, in 1829, has given such a bad *prestige* to the colony, that no one has since been found sufficiently adventurous, in the face of the greater inducements of Port Philip and the adjacent colonies, to make it their future home—in fact, no emigration whatever has taken place there since 1842. Perth

is the nominal capital; the population of the town and county, including several villages, is about 2,000, nearly half that of the entire colony.

The gold fields of Australia will form the subject of a future notice. Although gold has only so recently been found in large quantities, rumors of its existence have for several years been prevalent in the colony, and in 1847 specimens were displayed for exhibition. The matter, however, was forgotten till Mr. Hargreaves, in the spring of 1851, struck with the similarity of the soils in California and Australia, went out in search of gold, which he immediately discovered in the Bathurst District, about 120 miles north-west of Sidney, and westward of the Blue Mountains. More gold being soon after found in the neighboring creeks, the Governor took possession of the whole in the name of the Crown; appointed a Commissioner to grant licenses, and sent a small body of police to enforce his orders. The price of a license to a single individual is now £1 10 sterling a month, entitling the holder to about fifteen square feet to labor in. Shortly after, on the banks of the Turon, some miles further north, the celebrated Ophir diggings were discovered—and indeed along nearly the whole range of the Blue Mountains gold is supposed to exist. It was at the Ophir diggings that a mass of gold, in a single piece, weighing one hundred-weight, and sold for \$20,000, was found accidentally by a native black. About this time gold was found in large quantities in Victoria, at a place called Ballarat, about 50 miles west of Port Philip Bay, and shortly after a still more productive deposit at Mount Alexander, which, in its turn, has been eclipsed by a new field at Bendigo Creek; and no doubt many other gold-beds will be discovered.

Previously to the discovery of gold, the wages of all persons engaged in mechanical trades were good, and the price of living excessively cheap. There was, however, no opening for clerks or others ignorant of any business, and they had generally, if unable to get home, to take to a shepherd's life to earn their subsistence. There was, however, then, and is now, a good demand for all kinds of artisans and laborers; while the amount of remuneration has increased, and provisions remain at nearly their former prices. Articles of clothing were, in 1850, not dearer than in New York, at which time a leg of mutton could be purchased for an English sixpence, best bread was three cents a pound, sugar seven cents, tea fifty cents, Colonial tobacco fifty cents, and other articles in like proportion.

With regard to the administration of the Government, the Colonies have undergone numerous experiments, but in 1850 the last act was passed relative to the political Constitution of the

Australian Colonies. By it it was enacted that the elective franchise should be vested in every male (unconvicted of crime) having a freehold estate worth £100 or occupying a house worth £10, or holding a pasture license, after a six months' residence in all cases. The Legislative Council consists of a Governor (nominated by the Crown) and a number of members according to the population, two thirds of whom are electoral, and one third nominated by the Governor or the Home Government. The Council must meet at least once a year, and their duration of office is limited to five years. They are empowered to make laws "for the peace, welfare, and good government" of the Colonies, and to appropriate the revenues from taxes and rates. Every bill has to receive the Governor's assent, and may be disallowed within two years by the Sovereign. The Legislative Council is also empowered to create District Councils, whose duties extend to the making and supporting of roads, streets, bridges, public buildings, the purchase and tenure of public property, providing for the local administration of justice, and the establishment and support of schools. Perfect religious toleration is a fundamental principle in these colonies, Protestants and Catholics, equally receiving grants from the public revenue, while the title of the Roman Catholic prelates is officially acknowledged in this part only of the British Dominions.

There are plenty of good free schools accessible to all, and it may be safely stated that these offshoots are already a quarter of a century ahead of the mother country in those two essential requisites to a really free state. The press, too, "fourth estate," is entirely unshackled, having no stamp, paper or advertisement duty, as in the old country—no censorship in the shape of tax.

There are yet two noticeable subjects to which we have not alluded, namely, the black and the convict population. The former may be set down as by far the more harmless of the two, and as occupying, perhaps, the very lowest rank in the scale of humanity. They are described as being of a most repulsive, hideous appearance, filthily dirty in their habits, lazy and thievish to a degree, and fast disappearing, as all aborigines do, before the presence of the white man—not always alone by means of the gradual march of time, but by the exterminating fire-arms of the settlers, who, till the protection of the law was tardily extended to the poor "savages," (though it is doubtful which most deserved the appellation,) hunted them down like beasts of prey. They exist now, however, in such small numbers as scarcely to form an observable element in the population, and are quite incapable of exciting any other emotion than that of pity and disgust, according to the temperament of the spectator. As to the convict

population, or "Government men," as they are considerably termed, the advantage of having their services, so far from creating universal indignation against the Home Government, has long been a vexed question among the colonial statesmen, Dr. Lang and many other eminent men being strongly in favor of the continuance of the system, and it is certain that by means of this class many of the roads and other public works have been formed that otherwise would have been left undone for many years on account of their great cost.

(For the Register.)

HOMER.

THE skepticism which prevailed throughout Western Europe during the latter part of the 18th century, did not spare a subject so inviting as the poems of Homer. Some of the classic writers give us precise information regarding the author of these celebrated compositions; but they lived so long subsequent to the times when he is said to have existed, and derived their information from such questionable sources, that their statements are entitled to little or no credit. It is not, therefore, surprising that men who expected to show their superior acuteness by doubting things well established, should make an assault upon such a vulnerable subject as the reputed poems of "the blind, old bard of Chios' rocky isle." Wolfe and Heyne, two distinguished German scholars, were the principal assailants; and they disputed the supposed honor of having been the first to prove that Homer was a nonentity, and that those long-venerated epics were a mere piece of patch-work, produced by a dozen or possibly a score of different unknown poets. This honor few will now care to dispute with them; for their theories may be said to have gone the way of all paradoxes—to oblivion.

When we calmly consider the whole question, it appears strange that men called sagacious should adopt an opinion so preposterous, and still more strange that these opinions should have been widely adopted. There was always a considerable number of the poet's admirers that rejected these theories with contempt; but the critical cant of the day ran at one time so strong in the contrary direction, that this was attributed to the force of prejudice; and a man staked his reputation as a scholar by venturing to speak of *Homer's* poems; it was the *Homeric* poems—or rather, according to the views of those critics, that jumble of rhapsodies once

attributed to an imaginary author called Homer. That day has gone by—in all probability never to return.

To the simple question, how did all Greece come to attribute *such* poems to a man who never existed? no satisfactory answer has ever been given by those critics; and we do not see how it can. Whether the author of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* derived any assistance from preceding bards, is a matter of little consequence; and as little need we care whether they have not undergone many immaterial changes since they were first composed. The main question is, are these poems really the compositions of one man? If this be answered in the affirmative, everything which their admirers feel anxious to establish, follows as a matter of course. Their antiquity is unquestionable; and the only points that remain are the era and circumstances of the author; for his personal history is a blank—and such it must continue.

The objections to a divided authorship are oppugned both by external and internal testimony. The poems were universally attributed solely to Homer from a very remote period, and no rival has ever to this day been brought forward as entitled to share the praise of their composition. The authors assigned by those critics are purely imaginary: they appear nowhere as historic personages. Each poem evidently forms one connected whole, and every succeeding book evinces that it is the composition of a man of extraordinary genius, in all respects similar to the author of the preceding. Differences in style are sometimes apparent, but not near so great as could be pointed out in compositions well known to have proceeded from the same hand in our own day.* Those theories, therefore, require us to suppose, that there existed in Ancient Greece a number of very extraordinary geniuses, in whose mode of thinking and expressing their thoughts we could discover no marked difference, whose loose ballads were found, after making some additions and omissions, to form one connected and admirable whole, and whose very names were suffered to perish, and be supplanted by that of one poor minstrel, to whom all Greece most unaccountably united in attributing both the sole composition and the entire merit of the poems, though they must have been well aware that he had no good right to either. To men who could adopt a theory which required us to believe such a tissue of absurdities, we may apply the pithy saying of Dr. Samuel Ogden: "If you deny what is strange, you must admit what is impossible."

* Who but a frigid critic, in whom erudition had overwhelmed the power of vigorous thinking, would assume that a man of genius must always speak in one cuckoo note? An owl may be skeptical regarding the varied notes of the nightingale; but they exist notwithstanding.

The two principal objections urged against attributing these poems to a single illiterate poet, of a very remote period, admit of easy answers.

In answer to the objection derived from the difficulty of planning and composing such poems, without the aid of writing, we answer that where a person who possesses a memory naturally strong, has long dwelt on a series of occurrences highly interesting to him; and has never had his attention distracted by being fixed in rapid succession, on a great variety of unconnected objects, the leading events and the principal facts connected with them, are correctly learned, and long remembered. Supposing, then, that an illiterate minstrel of high poetical talents, whose chief occupation was, the recital of heroic ballads, had frequently heard an account of some great events recited in detached parts by his fellow-bards, or the story-tellers of his land, and that this event occurred not far from his native place, is it improbable that such a person could embody the substance of those ballads or tales in one connected poem, free from many of their faults, and replete with the interest and the beauty which genius can easily impart to a subject so attractive as the story of the siege and capture of Troy? We have instances of men who could repeat the whole *Iliad* by heart; and therefore it cannot be thought improbable that the mind which could compose those epics should remember all the events and incidents to be introduced, and give them forth to others in the continuous form in which we behold them. The excellencies of these poems are evidently due not to mental culture, but to the native force of genius, aided by extensive and careful observation; and therefore no valid objection can be derived from their surpassing merits.

The objection derived from the difficulty of preserving compositions of such length, for several centuries, without the aid of writing, appears very formidable to one who is accustomed to trust chiefly to writing alone. But if a mere mathematician, like Euler, could learn to recite the whole *Iliad* from memory alone, much more could this be effected by a minstrel, whose attention would be more readily and strongly fixed on the composition, and whose sole occupation was the learning and reciting of such poems. But it is not necessary to suppose that a single person ever learned the whole, or even one half either of the *Iliad* or of the *Odyssey*; for as there were many minstrels, the different parts might have been learned and handed down by different rhapsodists, until they were placed beyond the danger of being lost or mutilated, by being committed to writing.

That these poems have suffered many minor changes, is highly probable: but the connection of the narrative, the uniformity of

style and sentiment, and the care taken to secure a correct version when the poems were committed to writing, forbid us to think that they have suffered any material change. It is easy to copy the mere manner of a great author, and to re-echo his sentiments: but such imitations are as easily distinguished from the originals as a corpse is from a living body. We may, therefore, conclude that the testimony of antiquity regarding the origin of these poems is correct, and that the assault made upon the existence of their author, will turn out to be as futile as that made by many in the same age, upon the general belief regarding the existence of the Eternal.

R. K.

CHINESE PRINTING.

THIS nation has been acquainted with the art of printing, as is well known, for nine or ten centuries. They cut the characters of any work which they wish to publish, page by page, on blocks of wood. The ink is applied to the wood by means of a brush; and then the paper is pressed upon the block by means of another brush or rubber passed over it. Thus their mode of printing is very simple, and all their books are stereotyped. As their written language consists of so great a number of distinct characters, they have adhered to this system, instead of adopting the more expeditious plan of cutting or casting movable types.

During the last few years there has been some attention given by a few enterprising natives to the subject of printing in the Chinese character with movable metallic types. Some three years ago, an officer of high rank, who had been stationed at Formosa, passed through Amoy on his return to the north. He stated that he had a font of metallic type nearly complete, some specimens of which he exhibited at Amoy. I learn also from the Chinese Repository, that there have appeared at Canton some books printed in this manner. Among them is a large work consisting of one hundred and twenty volumes.

There has been a font of divisible Chinese type in operation for a few years at Ningpo. The type was cast from matrices prepared at Paris. This font was brought into practical use by the skill of Mr. Richard Cole, who was formerly connected with the Presbyterian mission at Ningpo. From that mission-press, many tracts and books have issued.

The most perfect fonts of metallic type which have yet been produced, have been made under the auspices of the London Missionary Society. The work was commenced in 1833 by Rev. Mr. Dyer at Penang. His font of large type was so far completed

in 1842 as to be sufficient for printing the Scriptures. As was to be expected, from the practical difficulties necessarily connected with the commencement of so great a work, many of the characters wanted beauty and symmetry of form. Mr. Dyer also commenced the preparation of a font of small type. The work was interrupted by his lamented death in 1843.

Early in 1848, the London Missionary Society secured the services of Mr. Cole, who had already removed from Ningpo to Hong Kong, to continue the work begun by Mr. Dyer. The mission had rejected a part of the font of large type, (twelve hundred and more in number,) and this has been made again by Mr. Cole; so that it now surpasses in beauty and symmetry any other that has yet been produced in China, except the font of small type, concerning which I wish to add a few words.

When Mr. Cole took charge of this font, it consisted, as I have been informed, of some two hundred punches and matrices. Many of these, however, were imperfect. Mr. Cole has repaired or made anew those which were imperfect, and has carried forward the work, until the font may now be called complete. It consists of about forty-eight hundred different characters, and is sufficient for printing the whole Bible. It is three-line diamond in size, and is equal to brevier. The printing from it is truly beautiful, neater and more distinct than the best specimens of block printing, even with the larger character generally used in Chinese books. By the use of this type, of course, works can be published in a much smaller form. Instead of half a dozen large volumes, as heretofore, the whole Scriptures may be bound in one volume of convenient size. The experiment has also been made of printing on both sides of thin Chinese paper. In this way very neat pocket editions of the New Testament may be published. A font of this type, sufficient for printing the whole Bible, is worth about eighteen hundred dollars. By the use of the large type for the text, and the three-line diamond for notes, commentaries may be published in excellent style. Mr. Cole has also cut type of a very small size, convenient for references.

CONSUMPTION—EFFECTS OF CLIMATE.

FOR many years past the favorite remedy of physicians, in all stages of consumption, has been to recommend a sea-voyage and a sojourn in a warmer climate. The medical professors in England and France have usually recommended the island of Madeira as the best place of resort for the consumptive and invalid; while

those of our own country have suggested to their patients either Florida or Cuba, as points of winter residence best adapted to alleviate the condition of the sufferers. Statistics recently collected, appear to contradict the advantages which were at one time supposed to be derived from a migration to a warmer climate, and to indicate that an atmosphere cool and dry is in every respect, preferable.

It is now contended that tuberculous phthisis is a species of scrofula, and that the process of putrefaction which the diseased lung undergoes, is hastened in the moist atmosphere of a warm climate, and that the disease is consequently far more prevalent at the South than in the North.

All bronchital affections are increased by the damp air of the sea-shore, and the statistics of the United States Army show that the number of deaths from consumption are more than double in such situations to what they are further inland. The statistics of the British army also show similar results. Not more than half as many soldiers are attacked with consumption as in the West Indies; and this is now becoming so well understood, that men invalided with this disease are sent from the West Indies to Canada, as offering the best chance of their recovery.

In London, two hundred and thirty-six persons out of a thousand die of consumption, annually; in Sweden, a northern climate, only sixty-six. In Russia, consumptive cases are equally rare, while in those southern climates, which have been considered the most beneficial to this class of invalids, deaths by consumption form the most prominent feature in the bill of mortality. In Italy, the disease is as prevalent as in France; and in Madeira, where patients are so frequently sent for the benefit of their declining health, there is no disease more prevalent among the natives of the Island. It is now pretty generally conceded that the number of those who are benefited by a southern sojourn, would have been equally benefited by remedial agents at home; and that the chances are much more in favor of those who travel North for health, than of those who seek recovery in the South.

The dry air of an inland, or mountain region, is also admitted to be preferable to the moist, cool air of the sea coast, or of valleys rendered damp by flowing streams. The subject is one of great interest to all, and any facts that are elicited in relation to it must necessarily be worthy of careful consideration. Consumption has hitherto been regarded as incurable. There are those who reproach the skill of the physician that it is so. There are even some who believe it possible to afford permanent relief in all but extreme cases; but they have hitherto been looked upon as empirics. Specified remedies, one after another, have been rec-

commended and tried, sometimes with partial, but rarely with complete success. It is to be hoped from the rapid advancement of scientific knowledge, that some course of treatment may be discovered, more certain in its beneficial results than any which have, as yet been adopted.

A MINE UNDER THE SEA.

THE following description of a visit to Bottallack copper-mine, in England, is from a work recently published, entitled "Rambles beyond Railroads." In complete mining equipment, with candles stuck by lumps of clay to their felt hats, the travellers have painfully descended by perpendicular ladders and along dripping-wet rock passages, fathoms down into pitchy darkness; the miner who guides them calls a *halt*, and their exact position with reference to the surface of the "terraqueous globe," is thus described:

"We are now four hundred yards out *under the bottom of the sea*; and twenty fathoms, or one hundred and twenty feet below the sea level. Coast-trade vessels are sailing over our heads. Two hundred and forty feet beneath us men are at work, and there are galleries deeper yet, even below that! The extraordinary position down the face of the cliff, of the engines and other works on the surface at Bottallack, is now explained. The mine is not excavated like other mines under the land, but under the sea!

Having communicated these particulars, the miner next tells us to keep strict silence and listen. We obey him, sitting speechless and motionless. If the reader could only have beheld us now, dressed in our copper-colored garments; huddled close together in a mere cleft of subterranean rock, with a flame burning on our heads and darkness enveloping our limbs—he must certainly have imagined, without any violent stretch of fancy, that he was looking down upon a conclave of gnomes.

After listening for a few moments, a distant unearthly noise becomes faintly audible—a long, low, mysterious moaning, that never changes—that is *felt* on the ear as well as *heard* by it—a sound that might proceed from incalculable distance—from some far invisible height—a sound unlike anything that is heard on the upper ground, in the free air of heaven—a sound so sublime, mournful and still, so ghostly and impressive when listened to in the subterranean recesses of the earth, that we continue instinctively to hold our peace, as if enchanted by it, and think not of

communicating to each other the astonishment which it has inspired in us both from the first.

At last the miner speaks again, and tells us that what we hear is the sound of the surf lashing the rocks a hundred and twenty feet above us, and of the waves that are breaking on the beach beyond. The tide is now at the flow, and the sea is in no extraordinary state of agitation; so the sound is low and distinct just at this period. But when storms are at their height, when the ocean hurls mountain after mountain of water on the cliffs, then the noise is terrific, the roaring heard down here in the mine is so inexpressibly fierce and awful, that the boldest men at work are afraid to continue their labor—all ascend to the surface to breathe the upper air and stand on the firm earth: dreading, though no catastrophe has ever happened yet, that the sea will break in on them if they remain in the cavern below.

Hearing this, we get up to look at the rock above us. We are able to stand upright in the position we now occupy; and flaring our candles hither and thither in the darkness, can see the bright, pure copper streaking the gallery in every direction. Lumps of ooze, of the most lustrous green color, traversed by a natural network of thin red veins of iron, appear here and there in large irregular patches, over which water is dripping slowly and incessantly in certain places. This is the salt water percolating through invisible crannies in the rock. On stormy days it spurts out furiously in thin, continuous streams. Just over our heads we observe a wooden plug of the thickness of a man's leg; there is a hole here, and the plug is all that we have to keep out the sea!

Immense wealth of metal is contained in the roof of this gallery, throughout its whole length; but it remains, and will always remain, untouched; the miners dare not take it, for it is part, and a great part of the rock which forms their only protection against the sea, and which has been so far worked away here, that its thickness is limited to an average of three feet only between the water and the gallery in which we now stand. No one knows what might be the consequence of another day's labor with the pickaxe on any part of it."

THE GREAT INDIANA CAVE.

A CAVE has been recently discovered in Crawford Co., Indiana, on the right bank of the Blue River, which promises to rival the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky, in magnificence and beauty of scenery. The following account of it is given by the discoverer, Mr. S. Burnett:—

"Entering the cave under a jutting rock near the brow of a lofty hill, and descending for about a quarter of a mile, at an angle of 30 or 40 degrees, we entered a small door, and after stooping rather uncomfortably low for sixty yards, found ourselves in a large open cave, or bat room, in which tens of thousands of those little animals hang suspended from the rocks in large clusters, like bees in swarm. Farther on, sticks the size of hop-poles, hickory bark, charcoal and barefoot human tracks were discovered, which must have remained there for a long time, as the door to this part of the cave was so blocked up with rocks when first discovered, that a man could not possibly pass. We soon entered an avenue 40 feet wide, and varying in height from 10 to 60 feet—the ceiling as smooth and beautiful as if finished by the trowel; then suddenly changing, presents the appearance of diversified hanging drapery, all of spotless white. Then again the naked rocks appear. At the end of this avenue we found ourselves at the foot of a rocky pyramid, up which we climbed some 60 feet, and on the top of which stand two beautiful stalagmites some five feet high, eighteen inches in diameter, and as white as the purest Indian marble; and when viewed by the dim light of our candles, presented a strong contrast with the gray walls of lime-stone rock. An oblong canopy some 40 or 50 feet high, is here hung with beautiful stalactites, suspended from the ceiling. We now found it necessary to crawl upon our faces or "snake it" for about 20 feet, when we came into an avenue wide and high. Turning suddenly to the left, we found ourselves in the midst of scenery of surpassing and exquisite beauty. The entire walls are covered with an incrustation of sulphate of lime, crystallized so as to glisten like ten thousand diamonds in the light. Some of these crystals, a foot in length, an inch wide, and as thick as a table knife blade, grew upon this base in a thousand diversified forms. Upon a projecting rock at one side of the avenue, great numbers had broken by their weight, and were lying in great profusion on the bottom of the cave. These formations, like the base upon which they grew, are sulphate, and white as the driven snow. Others resembling glass, form upon the ceiling as well as the floor, from an inch in diameter to the length and size of a common knitting-needle, and even smaller. The incrustation is frequently an inch thick, but more generally from an eighth to a quarter of an inch thick. Much of it has fallen to the floor, and is crushed under the feet of the visitor, and the place it occupied on the ceiling is being replaced by new formation. But I am utterly unable to describe it. It must be seen to be appreciated, or any correct idea formed of its beauty.

We visited many rooms with spacious domes and stalactites of

every imaginable size and form. In one apartment the water finds its way over a long range of projecting rocks, and the stalactitic matter is formed in folds and blades, like extended honey-comb, and hangs like drapery around the sides of the room. Upon the bottom is formed a great number of little pools of every form, elevated upon the floor like basins or troughs, the rim of each being perfectly level and inclined inwards, the stone which forms the basin being not thicker than a paste-board.

I spent three days in this wonderful hole in the ground—say seven hours each day. The first two days were spent in examining and exploring, and I think we must have travelled at least one mile per hour, or fourteen miles in two days. The third day, I revisited the most interesting parts to procure specimens for geological investigation. I had forgotten to say that saltpetre and Epsom salts are found in various parts, in large quantities; and I procured a lump of salts of half a pound weight, quite pure. We ventured a mile at least further than any other had ever gone before, and left it for others still to prosecute. A quite transparent eyeless crawfish which we found, was not the least interesting thing we saw.

The entrance to the cave belongs to Henry P. Rathrack, a wealthy, generous gentleman, who cheerfully rendered us every facility for examining the cave, and attended us as guide. I have no doubt when it is fully explored and surveyed, it will prove to be one of the wonders of Hoosierdom.

JEWS IN CHINA.

THE existence of a fragment of the family of Abraham in the interior of China has been certainly known for upwards of two hundred years, and surmised much longer. The Jesuit Ricci, during his residence at Peking in the beginning of the seventeenth century, was the means of exciting the attention of foreigners to the Jews of Kai-fung-fú, the ancient capital of Ho-nan province. In 1618, they were visited by Aleni, a follower of Ricci; and, a hundred years later, between 1704 and 1723, Fathers Gonzani, Domenge and Gaubil, were enabled, from personal investigation on the spot, to give minute descriptions of the people, their synagogue, and sacred books, the latter of which few could even then read, while the former was, with the peculiar institutions of Moses, fast falling to decay. Beyond a few feeble and ineffectual efforts on the part of biblical critics, nothing was subsequently attempted to maintain a communication with this

handful of Jews, until, in 1815, some brethren in London addressed a letter to them in Hebrew, and offered a large reward if any one would bring an answer in the same language. The letter was entrusted to a Chinese bookseller, a native of the province, who is reported to have delivered it, which is doubted, as he brought no written answer.

Recently, the Jews' Society in London, encouraged by the munificence of Miss Cook, who placed ample funds at their disposal, instituted inquiries on the subject, and sought the co-operation of the bishop of Victoria, who having previously opened a correspondence with Dr. Medhurst on the subject, during his lordship's recent visit to Shanghæ, the plan of operations was agreed upon. This was, to despatch two Chinese Christians, one of them a literary graduate, the other a young man with a competent knowledge of English, acquired at the London Missionary School. The *North China Herald*, of the 18th January, contains an interesting account of their mission, from which we gather the following particulars:

The two emissaries started on the 15th of November last, and after an absence of fifty-five days, returned to Shanghæ, the distance between the two cities being about six hundred miles.* Arrived at their destination, they found in the decayed city of Kai-fung-fú both Mohammedans and Jews, the latter poverty-stricken and degraded, their synagogue in a state of dilapidation, and the distinguishing symbols of their religion nearly extinct. The books of the law, written in a small square character on sheepskin, are, however, still preserved, although it would seem for many years they have been seen by no one able to read them.

The Jesuits mention the existence of the sacred books, but were not suffered to copy or even to inspect them; but the Chinese Christians encountered no such scruples; so that, besides taking copies of inscriptions on the stone tablets, they were enabled to bring away eight Hebrew manuscripts, six of them containing portions of the Old Testament, and two of the Hebrew liturgy. The correspondent of the *North China Herald* states that—

"The portions of Scripture are from the 1st to the 6th chapters of Exodus, from the 38th to the 40th chapters of the same book, Leviticus 19th and 20th chapters, Numbers 13th, 14th and 15th chapters, Deuteronomy from the 11th to the 16th chapters, with the 32d chapter of that book. Various portions of the Pentateuch, Psalms and Hagiographa occur in the books of prayers, which have not yet been definitely fixed. The character in which

* Kai-fung-fú, according to Williams's map, is situated about a league from the southern bank of the Hwang-ho, or Yellow river, in 34.55 north latitude, and 114.40 east longitude.

these portions are written in an antique form of the Hebrew, with points.* They are written on thick paper, evidently by means of a style, and the material employed, as well as the silk in which the books are bound, exhibit marks of a foreign origin. Two Israelitish gentlemen, to whom they have been shown, in Shanghai, say that they have seen such books in Aden; and the occurrence here and there of Persian words, written with Hebrew letters, in the notes appended, seem to indicate that the books in question came originally from the western part of Asia, perhaps Persia or Arabia. There is no trace whatever of the Chinese character about them, and they must have been manufactured entirely by foreigners residing in China, or who have come from a foreign country. Regarding their age it would be difficult to hazard even a conjecture."

The result of this mission has been such that it cannot be doubted another will be sent; and we trust the attempt at least will be made by some discreet foreigner—a Jew, or at all events a Hebrew scholar—to penetrate to Kai-fung-fú; for although the proofs brought away on the present occasion are so far satisfactory, yet in the account given, on the authority of the Chinese emissaries, we presume there are several things that might otherwise excite incredulity.

SOUTHEY THE POET.

(Passages from his life.)

IN early life, Southey's delight was in the garden, in the flowers, and in observing insects. Luckily no botanist or entomologist was in the neighborhood, or a poet might have been led astray. Wordsworth, he takes occasion to tell us, was without the sense of smell. "Once, and once only in his life, the dormant power was awakened; it was by a bed of stocks in full bloom, at a house which he inhabited in Dorsetshire some five-and-twenty years ago; and he says it was like a vision of paradise to him, but it lasted only a few minutes, and the faculty has continued torpid from that time. I, on the contrary," adds Southey, "possess the sense in such acuteness, that I can remember an odor, and call up the ghost of one that is departed." Through life three flowers reminded Southey of Bedminster,—the Roman jessamine, the everlasting pea, and the evening primrose. "My grandmother loved to watch the opening of this singularly delicate flower—a flower, indeed, which in purity and delicacy seems to me to ex-

* The Jesuits state expressly that the Hebrew was without points.

ceed all others. She called it Mortality, because these beauties pass away so soon, and because in the briefness of its continuance (living only for a night), it reminded her of human life."

* * * * *

The constructive talent, which Southey tells us he knew nothing of at first, was afterward that which most distinguished him. He was proud of it, and he well might, for he certainly possessed it in a very eminent degree.

"The progress of my own mind toward attaining it (so far as I may be thought to have attained it), I am able to trace distinctly, not merely by the works themselves, and by my own recollections of the views with which they were undertaken and composed, but by the various sketches and memoranda for four long narrative poems, made during their progress from the first conception of each till its completion. At present the facility and pleasure with which I can plan an heroic poem, a drama, a biographical and historical work, however comprehensive, is even a temptation to me. It seems as if I caught the bearings of a subject at first sight, just as Telford sees from an eminence with a glance in which direction his road must be carried. But it was long before I acquired this power—not fairly, indeed, till I was about five or six-and-thirty; and it was gained by practice, in the course of which I learnt to perceive wherein I was deficient."

In Southey's letters of 1793, we find strong expressions of sympathy with republican feelings. But the fervor is that of a boy inspired by his classics rather than by the newspapers of the day. Of modern books, Glover's *Leonidas* was now his favorite; and the contrast of Greece in the days of old and its then degradation—"What a republic!—What a province!"—awakes a wish strongly expressed, perhaps ardently conceived.

"If this world did but contain 10,000 people of both sexes, visionary as myself, how delightfully we would repeople Greece and turn out the Moslem. I would turn crusader, and make a pilgrimage to Parnassus at the head of my republicans, and there reinstate the Muses in their original splendor. We would build a temple to Eleutherian Jove from the quarries of Paros, replant the grove of Academus—ay, and the garden of Epicurus, where your brother and I would commence teachers."

But in all Southey's visions of the future, domestic comfort finds its place, and we have him, at the close of his letter to Horace Bedford, from which we are quoting, building his house in the prettiest Doric style—planting his garden, and managing his family group,—

"When here comes a rascal, crying, 'hare-skins and rabbit-skins,' and my poor house, which was built in the air, falls to pieces

and leaves me, like most visionary projectors, staring at disappointment. * * * It was the favorite intention of Cowley to retire with books to a cottage in America, and seek that happiness in solitude which he could not find in society. My asylum there would be sought for different reasons (and no prospect in life gives me half the pleasure this visionary one affords). I should be pleased to reside in a country where men's abilities would ensure respect; where society was on a proper footing, and man was considered more valuable than money; and where I could till the earth, and provide by honest industry the meat which my wife would dress with pleasing care."

In another letter (December 14, 1793) he says:—

"The wants of man are so very few, that they must be attainable somewhere, and whether here or in America matters little. I have long learnt to look on the world as my country. Now, if you are in the mood for a reverie, fancy me only in America; imagine my ground uncultivated since the creation, and see me wielding the axe, now to cut down the tree, and now the snakes that nestled in it. Then see me grubbing up the roots, and building a nice, snug little dairy with them: three rooms in my cottage, and my only companion some poor negro whom I have bought on purpose to emancipate. After a hard day's toil, see me sleep upon rushes; and in very bad weather take out my cassette, and write to you; for you shall positively write to me in America."

The subject of emigration for a while continued to occupy Southey's letters. In one to his brother Thomas Southey, he tells of two new associates, Favell and Le Grice—and quotes a poem of Favell's, on the subject of the intended colony.

"No more my visionary soul shall dwell
On joys that were; no more endure to weigh
The shame and anguish of the evil day,
Wisely forgetful—o'er the ocean-swell
Sublime of hope I seek the cottaged dell,
Where virtue calm with careless step may stray;
And dancing to the moonlight roundelay,
The wizard passion wears a holy spell.
Eyes that have ached with anguish! ye shall weep
Tears of doubt-mingled joy, as those who start
From precipices of distempered sleep,
On which the fierce-eyed fiends their revel keep,
And see the rising sun, and find it dart
New rays of pleasure trembling to the heart."

* * * * *

Southey's mind was gradually working itself clear of the errors and mistakes of his boyhood. To the effect of Bowles' poems, and to the constant company of Coleridge, he ascribes "the ame-

loration of his poetical taste." He says of Godwin,—“I read and all but worshipped. I have since seen his fundamental error—that he theorizes for another state, not for the rule of conduct in the present. * * * For religion, I can confute the atheist, and baffle him with his own weapons; and can at least teach the deist, that the arguments in favor of Christianity are not to be despised. Metaphysics I know enough to use them as defensive armor, and to deem them otherwise difficult trifles.”

His uncle, Mr. Hill, now returned from Lisbon. Southey dreaded a meeting with this affectionate man, all whose plans for his nephew's advancement or even support in life had been so strangely and unexpectedly frustrated. His separation from college—his determination not to enter the Church—his political misbeliefs—his projected marriage—his apparently desperate hope of supporting a family by writing for newspapers and magazines, and lecturing to such audiences as could be collected in places of commercial resort—all might well try the temper of a man who looked upon him with love and hope, but who saw only ruin in every one of the plans on which his nephew's heart seemed fixed. To break the bonds between him and his political associates, and if possible to interrupt the marriage project, his uncle determined on getting him out of England.

Only half the uncle's wishes were granted: the political bondage was snapped asunder, when the vessel, which conveyed him and his nephew to Lisbon, left the English shore; but before sailing, and on the very day of the commencement of his voyage, Southey was married to Edith Fricker—one of whose sisters had been married to Lovell, and another to Coleridge. “Immediately after the ceremony,” says Cuthbert Southey, “they parted. My mother wore her wedding ring hung round her neck, and preserved her maiden name until the report of her marriage had spread abroad.”

In the next letter we find Southey in Cornwall, and telling Bedford—“This is a foul country; the tinmen inhabit the most agreeable parts of it, for they live under ground. Above it is most dreary, desolate.” * * * * *

Southey continued to live in Bristol till the close of the year 1796. He then went to London, entered his name in the books of Gray's Inn, and spoke of studying law; but being engaged with the composition of two poems, *Thalaba* and *Madoc*, both of which occupied him simultaneously, and also being employed in writing on subjects of temporary interest in literature and politics for newspapers and magazines, it is not surprising that the only evidence we have of his ever having had law-books is his telling a friend of his hope soon to make a Christmas bonfire of them. Residence in the country appears to have been absolutely neces-

sary for him. There is a pleasing letter in verse to his wife, in which he speaks of it as the one wish of his heart,—

“To find some little home, some low retreat,
Where the vain uproar of the worthless world
Might never reach his ear. * * *

He would live
To thee and to himself, and to our God.
To dwell in that foul city, to endure
The common, hollow, cold, lip-intercourse
Of life; to walk abroad and never see
Green field, or running brook, or setting sun!
Will it not wither up my faculties
Like some poor myrtle, that in the town air
Pines in the parlor window?”

In his poetry was Southey's great refuge from everything that distressed or afflicted him. Poverty was to him at first a religion; “one overwhelming propensity,” he says, “has formed my destiny, and marred all prospects of rank or wealth, but it has made me happy, and will make me immortal.” Madoc was completed on the 12th of July, 1799, at Kingsdown, Bristol. “In those days,” says Southey, “I was an early riser. The time so gained was employed in carrying on the poem which I had in hand; and when Charles Danvers”—Southey was on a visit with him—“came down to breakfast, on the morning after Madoc was completed, I had the first hundred lines of *Thalaba* to show him fresh from the mint.” During this period, Southey's means of support were derived almost entirely from the payment which he received for his contributions to *Reviews* and *Magazines*. From the house of Longman, he also obtained some occasional employment in translating from the French. His health broke down under the continual task-work, and Beddoes ordered him to the south of Europe. He was detained by contrary winds at Falmouth:—“Six days we watched the weather-cock and sighed for north-easters. I walked on the beach, caught soldier-crabs, admired the sea-anemones in their ever-varying shapes of beauty—read Gebir, and wrote half a book of *Thalaba*.” Southey quotes this passage from an old letter of his in his preface to the last edition of *Thalaba*, because he had introduced the sea-anemones into the part of *Thalaba* then written, and because he wished to record the fact that he “was sensible of having derived great improvement from the frequent perusal of Gebir at this time.” In a letter to Taylor (October 22, 1799) he asks him, “Have you seen a poem called Gebir? It appears to me the miraculous work of a madman. Its intelligible passages are flashes of lightning at midnight, like a picture in whose obscure coloring no plan is discoverable, but in every distinct touch you see the master hand.” Writing to Cole-

ridge immediately before his voyage, he says, "I take with me for the voyage your poems, the Lyrics, the Lyrical Ballads, and Gebir; and, except a few books designed for presents, these make all my library. I like Gebir more and more. If you ever meet the author, tell him I took it with me on a voyage."

In July, 1800, we have him at Cintra, riding jackasses, "a fine lazy way of travelling, you have even a boy to beat old Dapple when he is slow. I eat oranges, figs, and delicious pears—drink Colares wine, a sort of half-way excellence between port and claret—read all I can lay my hands on—dream of poem after poem, play after play—take a siesta of two hours, and am as happy as if life were an everlasting to-day, and that to-morrow was not to be provided for." In about a year he returned restored in health. * * * * *

Southey still wished for a warm climate. Portugal would be the place which he himself would have chosen, but there seemed to have been some facilities for obtaining for him the office of secretary to an Italian legation, and in expectation of this he exulted;—why, think you? Let his letter to Grosvenor Bedford answer. "It is unfortunate that you cannot come to the sacrifice of my one law-book, my whole proper stock, whom I design to take to the top of Mount Ætna, for the purpose of throwing him down straight to the devil—huzza! Grosvenor, I was once afraid I should have a deadly deal of law to forget whenever I had done with it, but my brains, God bless them! never received any, and I am as ignorant as heart could wish. The tares would not grow." Southey did not go to Mount Ætna to visit the devil, but to Ireland. Fire, famine, and slaughter had been there a year or two before, and, indeed, every year, for the last five hundred, and it seemed no bad place to go to for the purpose of burning his law-books. Well, away he goes. "I saw," says he, "the sun set behind Anglesea, and the mountains of Caernarvonshire rose so beautifully before us, that though at sea, it was delightful—the sunrise was magnificent." * * * * *

He himself is fond of telling us of having preserved the gaiety of childhood to advanced life.

"Time that matures the intellectual part,
Hath tinged my hairs with gray, but left untouched my heart.

* * * * *

Scoff ye who will! but let me, gracious Heaven,
Preserve this boyish heart till life's last day,
For so that inward light by nature given,
Shall still direct and guide me on my way,
And brightening as the shades of age descend,
Shine forth with heavenly radiance at the end.

This was the morning light vouchsafed, which led
My favored footsteps to the Muses' hill,
Whose arduous steps I have not ceased to tread."

In a serious spirit he thus describes himself:—

"My days among the Dead are past;
Around me, I behold,
Where'er these casual eyes are cast,
The mighty minds of old;
My never-failing friends are they
With whom I converse night and day.

"With them I take delight in weal,
And seek relief in woe;
And while I understand and feel
How much to them I owe,
My cheeks have often been bedew'd
With tears of thoughtful gratitude.

"My thoughts are with the Dead! With them
I live in long past years,
Their virtues love, their faults condemn,
Partake their hopes and fears;
And from their lessons seek and find
Instruction with an humble mind.

"My hopes are with the Dead! anon
My place with them will be;
And I with them shall travel on
Through all futurity;
Yet leaving here a name, I trust,
That will not perish in the dust."

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICE OF CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

THIS extraordinary man, who has been sometimes called the father of American Colonization, is but little known to the mass of American readers, except as the hero of the story of Pocahontas. The following particulars of his life exhibit him as a man of eminent personal endowments:—

Captain Smith was, by birth, an Englishman. Descended of a respectable family, and heir to a competent fortune, he was born at Willoughby in Lincolnshire, in the year 1579. From his very childhood he was remarkable for a fervid fancy, and a romantic disposition, and seemed bent on the performance of some daring and adventurous exploit, which might transmit his name with honor to posterity. It was not long before his spirit of enterprise began to manifest itself in something beyond the adventures of a child. When only thirteen years of age, he conceived an

irresistible desire to visit the continent of Europe, where he felt persuaded that he would soon be able to distinguish himself by some manly and memorable transaction. To raise money secretly, for the purpose of defraying the expenses of his voyage thither, he sold his school-books, his satchel, and every other article of property placed at his disposal. His resolution, however, was suddenly checked, and his arrangements defeated, by the death of his father. This event placed him under the direction of guardians, who became more intent on the improvement of his fortune than the cultivation of his intellect. Pursuant to this plan, he was bound, at the age of fifteen, to a respectable merchant, in the town of Lynne. Here, his desire of visiting the continent revived in all its former vigor. Nor was it long till an opportunity of gratifying it occurred. The son of Lord Willoughby, a nobleman of distinction, had just arrived at an age when it was deemed expedient that he should commence the tour of Europe. Pleased with the manliness and accomplishments of young Smith, he invited him into his family, and they set out together on their travels through the continent.

During his continuance in France and Holland, he applied himself with great assiduity and success, to the study of the rudiments of war, a profession to which he exhibited now a settled predilection. Determined to devote himself entirely to military pursuits, he not long afterwards passed over into Scotland, encouraged by an expectation of honorable employment in the service of King James. Amused here with little else than courtly professions which were never realized, and splendid promises which remained unfulfilled, he soon left the north, with sentiments of dissatisfaction, and returned once more to his family residence, in the town of Willoughby. Meeting in this place with no associates possessing dispositions congenial to his own, he suddenly adopted a course of life altogether singular and romantic in itself, and productive of no small solicitude to his friends. Retiring into a deep and solitary wood, situated at a considerable distance from the town, he erected for himself a pavilion of boughs, where he fixed, for a time, his permanent abode. In this seclusion, resembling more the residence of an anchorite than a soldier, he devoted his time to the practice of horsemanship, the use of the lance, and the study of some favorite treatises on the art of war. Nor was it till they had procured for him instructors in these various exercises and pursuits, that his friends were able to entice him from his chosen retirement.

About this period a fierce and sanguinary war began to rage, between the Christians and the Turks, which summoned to the field the martial youth from all parts of Europe. On such an

occasion young Smith could no longer slumber in the lap of repose. Fired at once by his devotion to Christianity and his love of glory, he determined to volunteer his services in the conflict. With this intention he hastened to Flanders, and thence passed through France, where, amidst various perils and difficulties, into which he was betrayed by inexperience, or hurried by youthful impetuosity, he never failed to manifest the spirit of an undaunted warrior and a high-minded cavalier. He was now on the eve of an adventure of the most extraordinary and romantic character. At Marseilles he set sail on a voyage to Italy. The vessel in which he embarked was principally filled with a large and promiscuous assemblage of pilgrims, who, whatever may be the fervency of their piety and devotion, are seldom very remarkable for their knowledge or liberality. Scarcely had they lost sight of land, when the heavens became suddenly overcast, and a fierce and threatening tempest was on the wing. This scene of terrors continuing for several days, nothing but inevitable destruction seemed to await them. The pilgrims at length concluded that such an awful visitation could be nothing less than a judgment from heaven, in consequence of the heresies and crimes of some of the passengers. Young Smith, being the only one on board of a religious persuasion differing from their own, was immediately singled out, as the source of their misfortunes. Nor did these sanguinary fanatics deliberate long as to the course they should pursue. With a temper of mind worthy of the disciples of Moloch himself, they seized their victim and threw him into the sea, as an expiatory offering to the Ruler of the elements. Cool and collected even in this extremity of misfortune, Smith, who was one of the most able and expert of swimmers, supported himself amid the waves, with great strength and undaunted resolution. Partly by his own incredible exertions, but chiefly, by a special interposition of Providence in his favor, he reached in safety a small uninhabited island, not far remote from the coast of Italy. On the day following he had the good fortune to be rescued from this abode of solitude and want, by a French rover, the captain of which treated him with parental kindness. He remained in this vessel a sufficient length of time to make the tour of the Mediterranean, visiting both the Mahometan and the Christian coasts. Falling in, at length, with a Venetian vessel, richly laden, a desperate conflict ensued, in which the prowess of Smith excited the highest admiration and applause. The merchantman becoming a prize, the crew of the pirate was enriched by the booty, Smith receiving his full proportion. Soon after this he was generously placed on shore, to pursue his inclinations, and spend his money amidst the antiquities and pleasures of Italy.

The disposition, however, of Smith leading him rather to the tumults of a camp than to the peaceful walks of classic ground, amid faded greatness and mouldering ruins, he repaired to Vienna, where an army was embodying for an expedition against the Turks. Here he entered, as a gentleman volunteer, into the regiment commanded by the gallant Count Meldrich.

He had been but a short time attached to the banners of the cross, when he signalized himself by his enterprise and personal bravery. During the siege of Olumpagh and Alba-Regalis, he was the projector of stratagems, and the conductor of certain modes of attack against the enemy, which manifested in him an unusual talent for the art of war, and rendered the most essential services to the Christian cause. The command of a troop of horse, and, soon afterwards, the rank of first major, were conferred on him, as an acknowledgment of his high desert.

An occasion was now approaching, which gave to Captain Smith a distinguished place among the most celebrated champions of the age. The regiment to which he belonged had invested a strong Turkish fortress, garrisoned chiefly by renegades and banditti. Owing to frequent and vigorous sallies from the gates, the works of the assailants advanced slowly and with greater difficulty. During the progress of the siege, a Turkish officer, on horseback, issuing from the town, challenged to single combat any Christian of the rank of a captain. This produced a signal commotion, accompanied with the most generous and high-minded emulation, among the warlike spirits of the camp. Hundreds of hearts panted for the honor of humbling the pride of this insolent Mussulman, and as many swords were ready to start from their scabbards to execute the deed. So numerous and pressing were the claims of valor, that it became necessary to decide the contest by lot, when the turn of fortune proved favorable to Captain Smith.

The ramparts of the town being filled with ladies, and men glittering in arms, the two combatants appeared on the fatal arena. Mounted each on a war-horse of singular elegance, and clothed in suits of splendid armor, they entered the field to the sound of trumpets. Rushing to the charge at a given signal, Smith, on the first encounter, struck his adversary dead to the ground. He then sprang from his horse, according to the rules and conditions of the combat, and, cutting off his head, and despoiling him of his armor, bore them both in triumph within the Christian lines. Mortified and enraged at the fate of their champion, and determined to wash from their arms so foul a blot, the infidel garrison sent forth from the walls two other officers, bearing the same defiance on their swords. These were severally engaged

by our hero, with similar success, their heads and their armor augmenting his spoils.

After three such signal victories, Smith was regarded with admiration, and almost overwhelmed with honors. By his companions in arms his return to the Christian lines was hailed with tears and unbounded acclamations. Attended by a guard of six thousand men, and three Turkish horses led before him, each being preceded by a Turk's head mounted on a pole, he was conducted in triumph to the pavilion of his general. Here he experienced the most flattering reception, and was presented with a fine warhorse, richly caparisoned, and a cimeter and belt of great value. Shortly afterwards, the duke of Transylvania, coming to review the army, gave him his miniature, set in gold, accompanied with the most kind and flattering expressions, and other tokens of his exalted regard. He also issued, in his favor, letters patent of nobility, giving him for his arms three Turks' heads, emblazoned on a shield. These were afterwards recorded in the herald's office, in England, and became the permanent arms of Smith and his descendants.

Summing up the whole of his life and adventures, Smith might be hitherto denominated the favorite of Fortune. At length, however, a reverse was approaching, which overwhelmed him, for a time, with degradation and misery. At the disastrous affair of Rottenton, in the year 1602, where the carnage of the Christian army was so extensive, he was left among the dead on the field of battle, supposed himself to be one of the number. But the pillagers perceiving that he still breathed, and not doubting from the richness of his armor, that his ransom would be ample, made unwearied efforts to restore him to life, and contributed to his recovery by every attention that interest could suggest. Having regained his health, by means of the soundness and vigor of his constitution, and no one coming forward with a view to his redemption, he was soon afterwards sold at public auction among the rest of the prisoners. His purchaser was a Bashaw, who sent him to Constantinople as a present to his mistress, a young Tartarian lady of distinguished beauty. Smith, being now only twenty-three years of age, was in the lustre of life, with a noble countenance, an elegant person, and a deportment remarkable for manliness and grace. These qualities could not fail to attract the notice of his young mistress, to whose service he most assiduously devoted himself, nor was it long till they made a deep impression on her heart. This circumstance procured for him, on her part, the kindest and tenderest treatment, accompanied by every indulgence that might tend to alleviate his misfortunes and reconcile him to his situation. At length, to prevent him from being treated

with harshness and indignity, and, perhaps sold, by her mother, whose mind had become tinctured with prejudices against him, Charatza Tragabigzanda (for such was the name of his fair mistress) sent him into Tartary, to her brother, who was timor bashaw of Nalbrits, on the Palus Meotis. This separation she did not intend to be of long continuance. Her object was, to allow Smith to remain with her brother till he should acquire a knowledge of the language, manners, and religion of the country, and till time should place her fortunes at her own disposal. She meant, then, to indulge her tenderness for him, and openly bestow on him her hand in marriage.

On delivering him to her brother, this young damsel recommended him to his favor with great zeal and the most affectionate expressions. The bashaw, however, received him with very different impressions. Suspecting the passion which his sister entertained for him, he only treated him the more harshly and unworthily. Smith's martial spirit, elevated by a consciousness of Tragabigzanda's love, submitted with difficulty to the repeated indignities he was forced to encounter. Provoked, at length, beyond the point of further endurance, by the brutalities practised on him in a barn where he was threshing, he assaulted the timour in his turn, and struck him dead to the ground by a blow with his threshing bat. This event took place about a league from the dwelling of his tyrannical master. His fortunes were now at the lowest ebb of desperation. There was no time to be lost. His preservation from torture depended on his immediate flight from the country. He, accordingly, stripped the dead body, and burying it under the straw, clothed himself in the timour's apparel, and mounting his horse, with nothing but a knapsack of corn for his subsistence, fled precipitately into the deserts of Circassia. After wandering two or three days in great solicitude, he was conducted at length, under the direction of a protecting Providence, to the main road which led to Muscovy. Pursuing this for sixteen days, under the utmost pressure of hunger and fatigue, he arrived at a garrison on the frontiers of Russia. He experienced here a most cordial reception, his present wants were all supplied, and he was placed in a situation to continue his journey in safety and comfort. Having travelled through various countries of Asia and Europe, he had the good fortune to meet, at Leipsic, with his old friend and patron, the duke of Transylvania, together with Count Meldritch, under whom he had served with so much distinction. After passing some time in the society of these illustrious noblemen, the duke, at his departure, furnished him with letters setting forth his character as a soldier, the services he had performed, and the honors he had attained. At the

same time, to repair, in some measure, his shattered circumstances, and to enable him to appear in a style corresponding to his military standing, he presented him with the sum of fifteen hundred ducats.

Having seen much of the world, and being wearied by a succession of such singular adventures, Smith had determined on returning to his native country. He was, notwithstanding, induced to take, previously, an extensive range through Germany, France and Spain, the further to improve himself in military science. Led by the rumors of war, and the native affinity of his mind for dangers, he even passed over to Africa, and spent some time at the court of Morocco. Having visited the fortresses and examined most of the curiosities of the Barbary states, he finally returned to England, by the way of France. In his passage across the channel, in a French galley, he had the fortune to fall in with two Spanish ships of war. A desperate conflict ensued, which, after continuing nearly three days, terminated in the entire discomfiture of the Spaniards.

England being now in a state of profound peace, Smith found in it no field for the display of his active and warlike disposition. After visiting his friends, and spending some time in the kingdom unoccupied and discontented, he cheerfully embarked with Captain Grosnold, in the project of planting colonies in America.

Although by his adventures and gallant exploits Smith had acquired great celebrity in the eastern hemisphere, a richer and more brilliant meed of renown awaited him in the west. He had been hitherto raised to distinction and loaded with honors, as an intrepid warrior and a successful champion; but what was this compared with the reputation of a wise and enterprising colonizer of a continent!—a diffuser of civilization and a propagator of Christianity throughout a territory of boundless extent, where barbarism and infidelity had heretofore practised their rites of impiety and their orgies of blood!

Captain Smith was one of the original company to which James I., under date of the 10th of April, 1606, granted letters patent for the colonization of America. He was also appointed to a seat in the first council of the "South Colony," as it was then denominated, and was afterwards elected president of that body. During his exercise of the functions of this office, his services were of inestimable value to the infant establishment whose destinies he directed.

In company with his associates he set sail from England on the 19th of December, 1606, but did not arrive on the coast of Virginia till the 26th of April, 1607. In the meantime dissensions of the most serious and threatening aspect had unfortunately

broken out among the adventurers. To such a height had these feuds arisen, that Captain Smith had been in close confinement for thirteen weeks, under the charge of meditating the murder of the council and the usurpation of the supreme authority as soon as they should arrive on American ground. The real motive, however, for the arrest and rigorous treatment of this distinguished character, was the envy and jealousy which his superior powers and transcendent popularity had excited in the minds of the other members of the council. He had the good fortune and address not only to establish his own innocence, but ultimately to effectuate the overthrow of most of his accusers.

To specify in detail, within the limits of the present article, what he did and suffered for the first colony of Virginia, is altogether impossible. It is no extravagance of panegyric to say that he was the quickening-spirit—the vital principle of the whole establishment—the projector and accomplisher of everything requisite for its comfortable subsistence and its preservation from ruin. Possessed of a vigor of constitution which formed a perfect counterpart to the hardihood of his mind, no sickliness of climate, no unwholesomeness of provisions was able to affect him, nor did his system grow feeble under the pressure of want. When others of his companions, therefore, were faint from fatigue or languishing under disease, his strength was unbroken and his health unimpaired. While dejection and despondency threw a cloud over the brow of every one around him, his spirits were buoyant, his fortitude unshaken, and Hope, the sweetener of toils and the stay of the unfortunate, never forsook him. On every occasion an increase of difficulties served only to invigorate his exertions, and to awaken him to some new and corresponding resources. Was the colony threatened with a scarcity of provisions: the surrounding country was rendered in some way subservient to their wants. Did the savages approach them with hostile intentions: they were not only repulsed with slaughter, but terror and devastation were carried to their dwellings. Did any of the colonists, discontented with their situation and discouraged at their prospects, meditate a dastardly return to Europe, about to frustrate thereby the intentions of those who had projected the enterprise: the malecontents were either mildly won back to their duty by argument and remonstrance, or presented with the alternative of instantly abandoning their purpose or perishing in their first attempt to carry it into execution. Against the physical inconveniences resulting from the different seasons of the year, the best provisions were made which the nature and circumstances of the case would allow; and all these arrangements were attributable to the abundant resources of Smith.

So well known and at the same time so formidable to the savages did this celebrated character become, that he acquired among them an influence which was almost incredible. By treating them as friends or as enemies, according to the attitude which the mutability of their character induced them to assume, he seldom failed to mould them to his wishes. If at one time they would have murdered, at another they would with no less eagerness have adored him.

The adventures and enterprises of Smith among the aborigines of our country were numerous and interesting. One of them in particular deserves to be recited. It is that which relates to the celebrated Pochahontas.

When engaged in exploring the head waters of James' river, Captain Smith was surprised and surrounded by several hundred Indians armed with bows and arrows. Against this fearful odds he defended himself with great valor, slew several of the assailants, and spread such terror among the rest, that none had the courage and hardihood to approach him. Having sufficiently checked the impetuosity of their onset, he endeavored to effect his escape towards his canoe, which he had left by the border of a small lake. While thus engaged, directing his eyes towards the enemy rather than to explore the track he was pursuing, he plunged suddenly, up to his armpits, into an oozy creek. Although inextricably entangled, and unable any longer to act on the offensive, he still kept his savage pursuers at bay, until chilled and benumbed by the coldness of the water, he threw away his arms and surrendered at discretion.

Having drawn him out of the creek, and restored him to himself by friction and the heat of a fire, some of the savages made arrangements to bind him to a tree, while others were preparing to pierce him with arrows. But his presence of mind, which never forsook him, happily suggested to him the means of safety. Taking from his pocket a beautiful travelling compass inclosed in ivory, which he used for his guide in his excursions through the country, he so amused and astonished the whole party with a view of it, and by the account which he gave them of its extraordinary properties, that they immediately relinquished their preparations to bind him, and were almost ready to fall down and worship him.

During the whole time of his captivity, which lasted upwards of seven weeks, Smith contrived, by means of the inexhaustible resources of his mind, to maintain among the Indians an idea of his consequence and great superiority. To this he was repeatedly indebted for his life. On one occasion, by sending some of the savages as the bearers of a letter to his friends in Jamestown, com-

missioning them to bring him, on their return, certain specified articles, he filled them with amazement at the power he possessed of making paper speak. This measure, simple as it was, proved eminently serviceable to him in his subsequent transactions with these children of nature.

While Smith was in their possession, the Indians were preparing for the assault of Jamestown, with a view to the utter extermination of the colonists. For the more certain attainment of their object, they applied to him for counsel, and assistance, promising him as a reward, life and liberty, with as much land and as many women as he might wish to possess. He, however, represented to them, in strong terms, the extreme difficulty and danger of the enterprise, and painted in such glowing colors the springing of mines, and the destructive operation of great guns, and other warlike instruments, that he effectually succeeded in deterring them from the attack. The representation he made had the happiest effect in elevating the colonists in the estimation of the natives.

Having abandoned for the present all views of hostility against Jamestown, the savages began to amuse themselves by leading Captain Smith in a kind of triumphal procession around the country. In this state of barbaric pomp, accompanied at times with the most obstreperous rejoicings, they visited many places of note, till at length they arrived at Werowocomoco, the residence of Powhatan, the king of the country. This chieftain possessed a sway that was not only extensive, but imperial, in the true signification of the term; for he exercised dominion over no less than thirty tributary kings. When Smith was presented to him he appeared in all the majesty of state. He was seated before a fire, on a wooden throne, resembling a bedstead, clothed in a flowing raccoon-skin robe, with a fanciful coronet of feathers on his head. Although his aspect was fierce and his manners morose, he received his prisoner with something like courtesy. He ordered a table to be spread for him, furnished with an abundance of the best provisions his palace could afford. This banquet being ended, a council was held, in which it was determined that Smith should be put to death. The sentence was to be carried in effect by laying the prisoner's head on a stone and beating out his brains with massy clubs. No sooner had the murderous mandate gone forth, than arrangements were made for carrying it into execution. A large concourse of savages was convoked, to give solemnity to the scene; Smith's hands were bound, his head laid on a block of granite, and four clubs, placed in the hands of sturdy warriors, already raised to dash out his brains.

At this critical moment, when the last ray of hope was nearly

extinguished, a protecting Providence, which had never for an instant forsaken our hero, most signally interposed to snatch him from destruction. Powhatan had a favorite daughter, named Pocahontas, then in the fourteenth year of her age. Deeply interested in the fate of Smith, she had already, without effect, exerted the whole weight of her influence to save him from the sanguinary sentence of her father. Inflexibly determined to effect her purpose, or perish in the attempt, this amiable and heroic princess mingled with the throng at the place of execution. At the moment when the first club was about to descend, with the rapidity and heavenly disposition of the dove of mercy, she sprang forward from the crowd, clasped the prisoner in her arms, and covered his head with her own, in order that her interposition might either arrest the blow, or that she might become the first victim, and thus escape the pain of witnessing the murder of so interesting an individual.

This expedient, which, in point of benevolence and romance of character, has scarcely a parallel, was crowned with success. The whole assembly, rude and savage as were the individuals who composed it, was electrified at the sight. Its thirst for blood was converted, as by magic, into a sentiment of humanity. Powhatan, softened and subdued by this more than human daring of his daughter, staid, by his mandate, the hands of the executioners, and immediately reversed the fatal sentence. The prisoner was, accordingly, unbound, and restored to liberty, with an assurance that his life was no longer in danger.

A few days after this adventure, Captain Smith was suffered to return to James-Town, accompanied by twelve warriors for his guides, and honored by several presents from the king. On his arrival he found nothing in the colony but confusion and dismay. A party of malcontents, too powerful for those of better dispositions, had taken possession of an armed ship, the only sea vessel then in America, and were meditating an immediate return to England. Nor did this faction mean to go alone. In case of their opponents not coming into their measures and accompanying them voluntarily, it was their fixed resolution to compel them by force to abandon the settlement, and thus frustrate entirely the present attempt to colonize the country.

It was the first business of Smith to crush this conspiracy, which was now perfectly mature and ready for action. Accordingly, finding that argument and remonstrance were employed without effect, he put himself at the head of his friends, and, turning the guns of the fort against the vessel, as she lay in the stream, prepared to sink her should she attempt to weigh anchor.

It was on this occasion that Smith most eminently signalized

himself by his services to the enterprise in which he was engaged. Three preceding attempts to colonize Virginia had proved abortive. These repeated failures accompanied with an abundant waste of life and treasure, had discouraged and checked, in no small degree, the spirit of colonization in the mother country. This fourth project for effecting a permanent settlement in America had been commenced on a larger scale, and the arrangements in relation to it had been much more expensive than on any former occasion. Besides several adventurers of rank and distinction, who had zealously engaged in it, it was under the immediate patronage of Sir Walter Raleigh, the most noble and enterprising character of the time. Had it, like the former, terminated unsuccessfully, the spirit of colonization, if not entirely extinguished, would have been so completely paralyzed by the event, that it is impossible to calculate the time at which another attempt would have been made. We think it no violation of probability to allege, that the business would, almost of necessity, have lain neglected during the lives of the then existing generation of adventurers. Such an issue seems the more likely, in consideration of the perilous condition of England at the time, which gave to their country a just claim on all enterprising spirits of the realm. By frustrating, then, the intention of the malcontents, and averting the ruin which threatened the establishment, Captain Smith rendered a service to the business of colonization, which no price could sufficiently reward nor any words sufficiently praise.

Without dwelling on the subsequent events of his life, in the knowledge of which we have to lament that we are somewhat defective, we shall close this article with an extract in relation to him from Stith's History of Virginia, written in the year 1747. This work, although somewhat antiquated, as to its style and manner, is notwithstanding founded on original and authentic documents, and rich in many interesting details.

"I shall finish," says the author of it, "the character of Captain Smith, with the testimonies of some of his soldiers and fellow-adventurers. They own him to have made justice his first guide and experience his second: that he was ever fruitful in expedients, to provide for the people under his command, whom he would never suffer to want anything he either had or could procure: that he rather chose to lead than send his soldiers into danger; and upon all hazardous or fatiguing expeditions, always shared everything equally with his company, and never desired any of them to do or undergo anything that he was not ready to do or undergo himself: that he hated baseness, sloth, pride, and indignity more than any danger: that he would suffer want rather

than borrow; and starve sooner than not pay: that he loved action more than words; and hated falsehood and covetousness worse than death: and that his adventures gave life and consistency to the colony, and his loss was their ruin and destruction. They confess that there were many captains in that age (as there are indeed in all ages) who were no soldiers; but that Captain Smith was a soldier of the true old English stamp, who fought, not for gain or empty praise, but for his country's honor, and the public good: that his wit, courage, and success here, were worthy of eternal memory: that by the mere force of his virtue and courage, he awed the Indian kings, and made them submit and bring presents: that, notwithstanding such a stern and invincible resolution, there was seldom seen a milder and more tender heart than his was: that he had nothing in him counterfeit or sly; but was open, honest, and sincere: and that they never knew a soldier before him, so free from those military vices of wine, tobacco, debts, dice and oaths." C.

SKETCH OF RICHARD HOOKER.*

(The celebrated author of Ecclesiastical Polity.)

THE name of Hooker has outlived that of the polemics with which he was engaged; and while the immediate subjects which exercised his pen are forgotten, his books of ecclesiastical polity shall continue to be read with admiration, not only for the clearness of their reasoning, and the vigor of their style, but as exhibiting the correctest views of social relation, and the foundations of human laws and government. In them the reader will find the true balance and connection of individual rights and social obligation; what may be claimed, and what may be conceded for the general good.

The mind and character of Hooker greatly resembled that of his immortal work. The one, in fact, was but a counterpart of the other. In his book we perceive a chaste simplicity, united to the most vigorous strength of reasoning; and though immense stores of reading, and acute research and observation are poured into it, the whole is so judiciously and naturally blended, as not to have the slightest appearance of pedantry or ostentation.

Such also was Hooker; a man capable of the greatest things, yet in his deportment the simplest and most humble man alive. His birth was lowly; but though his parents had a large family

* A rare instance of the union of great intellect with wonderful simplicity and humility of disposition.

they laudably exerted themselves in giving him a good education ; and it is related of him, that when he was a school-boy, he was inquisitive to inquire into the grounds and reasons of things, asking, "Why this was, and that was not to be remembered?" "Why this was granted, and that denied?" Yet this sagacious spirit was mixed, says one of his biographers, with so remarkable a sweetness and serenity of temper, as endeared him to his preceptor, and made him predict that he would become a great man. Hooker's uncle was chamberlain of Exeter, and being very intimate with Bishop Jewell, of Salisbury, he entreated him to become his nephew's patron, which the good prelate consented to, and sent him accordingly to Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he obtained the place of bible clerk, and followed his studies with unremitted attention.

Hooker's biographer relates a curious anecdote of him and his patron, which, as a picture of the manners of those times, as well as of the characters of the two parties, will be found amusing ; and it may be proper to observe here by the way, that Goldsmith has made a pleasing use of the story in his "Vicar of Wakefield."

Mr. Hooker, having had a severe illness at college, on his recovery took a journey from Oxford to Exeter, to see his good mother, being accompanied by a countryman and companion of his own college, and both on foot ; which was then either more in fashion, or want of money, or their humility made it so : but on foot they went, and took Salisbury in their way, purposely to see the good bishop, who made Mr. Hooker and his companion dine with him at his own table ; and at parting his lordship gave him good counsel, and his benediction, but forgot to give him money ; which, on considering, he sent a servant in haste to call Richard back, and said to him, "Richard, I sent for you back to lend you a horse which hath carried me many a mile, and I thank God, with much ease." He then delivered to him his walking-staff, with which he said he had travelled through many parts of Germany ; and he said, "Richard, I do not give, but lend you my horse ; be sure you be honest, and bring my horse back to me at your return this way to Oxford. And I now give you ten groats to bear your charges to Exeter ; and here be ten groats more, which I charge you to deliver to your mother, and tell her I send her a bishop's benediction with it, and beg the continuance of her prayers for me. And if you bring my horse back to me, I will give you ten groats more to carry you on foot to the college, and so God bless you, good Richard."

But Mr. Hooker never afterwards saw his patron ; for before his return to Oxford, he learnt the melancholy news of his death.

However, the loss was in some measure supplied by the friendship of Dr. Cole, the president of the college, who assured him that he should never want for anything.

After entering into orders, and obtaining a fellowship, he was called to preach at Paul's Cross, in London, then the most famous place for sermons in the kingdom, and while he resided at the house appointed for the entertainment of the officiating minister, the mistress recommended her daughter Joan to him, and he in the simplicity of his heart, married her, though she had neither "beauty nor portion." Soon after this he obtained the living of Drayton Beauchamp, in Buckinghamshire, where he was visited by two of his pupils, Edwin Sandys, son of the archbishop of York, and George Cranmer, nephew of the Protestant martyr of that name.

Great was their surprise on finding their tutor in a field reading Horace, and tending his sheep, which he said he was obliged to do as his servant was gone home to dinner, and to assist his wife in some necessary household business. When the servant returned, and released him, his two pupils attended him unto his house, where their best entertainment was his quiet company, which was presently denied them, for "Richard was called to rock the cradle."

At parting, Mr. Cranmer said, "Good tutor, I am sorry your lot is fallen in no better ground as to your parsonage; and more sorry that your wife proves not a more comfortable companion after you have wearied yourself in your studies." To whom the good man replied, "My dear George, if saints have a double share in the miseries of this life, I that am none ought not to repine at what my wise Creator hath appointed for me, but labor, as indeed I do daily, to submit mine to his will, and possess my soul in patience and peace."

By the exertions of these friends he was appointed master of the Temple, but he soon fell into a controversy, provoked by his afternoon lectures and others, and harassing to the quiet disposition of Mr. Hooker.

Being at last wearied out by the fiery zeal of his opponents, he earnestly solicited the Archbishop of Canterbury to remove him from that place to some country parsonage, "where," says he, "I may see God's blessings spring out of my mother earth, and eat mine own bread in peace and privacy. A place where I may without disturbance meditate my approaching mortality, and that great account which all flesh must at the last great day give to the God of all spirits."

His request was granted, and in 1591, he was presented to the rectory of Boscum, near Salisbury, where he finished the first

four books of his Ecclesiastical Polity, which were published in 1594. The next year he was removed to the living of Bishop's Bourne, in Kent, where he died in 1600.

A higher encomium upon his work can hardly be passed than what Pope Clement VIII. observed when part of it was read to him in Latin by Dr. Stapelton.

"This man," said the pope, "indeed, deserves the name of an author; his books will gain reverence by age, for there are in them such seeds of eternity, that, if the rest be like this, they shall last till the last fire shall consume all learning."

The personal appearance of Hooker was mean; for he was of low stature, and stooped very much, and his natural bashfulness was much increased by a dimness of sight, which was the consequence of intense study.

Of his extraordinary humility we have a pleasing instance related in his life, by Walton; who says, that "Hooker and his poor parish clerk did never talk but with both their hats on, or both off at the same time."

A LATIN HYMN.

(Written by Hildebert, Bishop of Mons, in the 12th century, and which Archbishop Usher called "rythmos elegantissimos.")

Extra portam jam delatum,
Jam fœtentem, tumulatum,
Vitta ligat, lapis urget;
Sed, si jubes, hic resurget:
Jube, lapis revolvetur;
Jube, vitta disrumpetur;
Exiturus, nescit moras,
Postquam clamas, *Exi foras.*

In hoc salo mea ratis
Infestatur a piratis:
Hinc assultus, inde fluctus:
Hinc et inde mors et luctus.
Sed tu, bone Nauta! veni;
Preme ventos, mare leni;
Fac abscedant hi piratæ,
Duc ad portum, salva rate.

Infœcunda mea ficus,
Cujus ramus, ramus siccus;
Incidetur, incendetur,
Si promulgas quod meretur.
Sed hoc anno dimittatur,
Stercoretur, fodiatur;
Quod si necdum, respondebit,
Flens hoc liquor, tunc ardebit.

Borne without the gate of doom,
Prisoned in corruption's gloom,
Shrouded, sepulchred, he lies,
Who, if thou but speak, shall rise:
Speak, and far the stone is rolled;
Speak, and drops the shrouding fold;
Forth he comes, nor knows delay;
When thy voice, *Come forth*, shall say.

On the deep my storm-tossed bark
Meets the lurking pirates dark;
Foes above, and waves below,
All around is death and woe:
But thou, blessed Pilot! come;
Quell the winds, and smooth the foam
Drive away the pirate band;
Guide the vessel safe to land.

Lo, a barren fig-tree I,
And its branches, branches dry,
Felled and fired, must sink to dust,
If thou speak the sentence just.
Yet a year its doom restrain;
Dig it, dung it, yet again:
Then, if nought it still return,
Weeping speak I, it shall burn.

Vetus hostis in me furit,
Aquis mersat, flammis urit
Inde, languens et afflictus,
Tibi soli sum relictus.
Ut hic hostis evanescat,
Ut infirmus convalescat,
Tu virtutem jejunandi
Des infirmo, des orandi.
Per hæc duo, Christo teste,
Liberabor ab hac peste.

Ab hac peste solve mentem,
Fac devotum pœnitentem :
Da timorem, quo projecto,
De salute nil conjecto.
Da spem, fidem, charitatem ;
Da discretam pietatem ;
Da contemptum terrenorum ;
Appetitum supernorum.

Totum, Deus, in te spero ;
Deus, ex te totum quæro.
Tu laus mea, meum bonum,
Mea cuncta tuum donum ;
Tu solamen in labore ;
Medicamen in languore ;
Tu in luctu mea lyra ;
Tu lenimen es in ira.

Tu in arcto liberator ;
Tu in lapso relevator ;
Metum præstas in propectu,
Spem conservas in defectu.
Si quis lædit, tu rependis ;
Si minatur, tu defendis ;
Quod est anceps, tu dissolvīs ;
Quod tegendum, tu insolvis.

Tu intrare me non sinas
Infernales officinas ;
Ubi mœror, ubi metus,
Ubi fœtor, ubi fletus ;
Ubi probra deteguntur ;
Ubi rei confunduntur ;
Ubi tortor semper cædens ;
Ubi vermis semper edens ;
Ubi totum hoc perenne,
Quia perpes mors gehennæ

Me receptet Sion illa,
Sion, David urbs tranquilla ;
Cujus faber auctor lucis ;
Cujus portæ signum crucis ;
Cujus claves lingua Petri ;
Cujus cives semper læti ;
Cujus muri lapis vivus ;
Cujus custos Rex festivus.

Lo, the old tormentor wrings me ;
Into fires and waters flings me ;
Wearied, wasted, and o'erthrown,
I am left to thee alone.
That this foe may cease to strive,
That the sufferer may revive,
Give me, Lord, the grace of fasting,
Give me lowly prayer and lasting.
For this woe, so Christ has spoken,
Shall by fasts and prayers be broken.

From this woe my spirit cure,
Make me penitent and pure ;
Give me fear, my safety shielding,
Nought to hazard idly yielding ;
Give me hope, and faith, and love ;
Warm desires that mount above ;
Give me scorn of things that die,
Give me sober piety.

All, O God, from thee I crave ;
All in thee I hope to have ;
All things from thy gift possessing.
Thou, my only praise and blessing ;
Thou, my solace in my toil ;
In disease my healing oil ;
Thou, in grief my gladsome lyre ;
Thou, my peace mid storms of ire.

Thou, who freest me in distresses ;
Thou, whose arm my falls redresses ;
Prompting fear when I prevail ;
Hope maintaining when I fail ;
Am I injured ? thou contendest ;
Am I threatened ? thou defendest ;
All things dubious thou revealest,
All that should be hid concealest.

Oh, permit me not to go
Through th' infernal gates of woe,
Where is anguish, where are fears ;
Where are loathsomeness and tears ;
Where are shrines with light surrounded ;
Where the guilty are confounded ;
Where the scourge is ever smiting ;
Where the worm is ever biting ;
Where these horrors are forever,
For the second death dies never.

Me let yonder Sion greet ;
Sion, David's tranquil seat :
Here, the Lord of light immortal
Built, and made the cross her portal ;
And her keys are Peter's voice ;
And her dwellers all rejoice ;
And her walls are living stone,
And her guard the Almighty throne.

In hac urbe lux solemniss,
Ver æternum, pax perennis;
In hac odor implens cœlos,
In hac semper festum melos.
Non est ibi corruptela;
Non defectus, non querela;
Non minuti, non deformes;
Omnes Christo sunt conformes.

Urbs cœlestis, urbs beata,
Super petram collocata,
Urbs in portu satis tuto,
De longinquo te saluto;
Te saluto, te suspiro,
Te affecto, te requiro.

Quantum tui gratulentur,
Quam festive conviventur,
Quis affectus eos stringat,
Aut quæ gemma muros pingat,
Quis chalcedon, quis jacinthus,
Norunt illi qui sunt intus.
In plateis hujus urbis,
Sociatus piis turbis,
Cum Moise et Elia,
Pium cantem alleluia.

In her towers is light eternal;
Peaceful seasons ever vernal;
Fragrance filling all the skies,
Floods of festal melodies.
There, is no corrupting taint,
No defect, and no complaint;
None or spot or blemish bearing;
All, but Christ's own image wearing.

Heavenly city, city bless'd,
Founded on the rock of rest,
Haven safe for every sail,
From afar thy towers I hail;
Hail, and long more near to see;
Loving, seeking, nought but thee.

What the praise thy dwellers render,
What the marriage-supper's splendor,
What its fellowship entwining,
With what gems the walls are shining,
Jacinth, sapphire, how they glow,
They who there abide may know.
May I, in that city's street,
With the pious concourse meet,
And with Moses and Elias,
Sing the hallelujah pious.

DOCUMENTS.

PROPOSED ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC SHIP-CANAL.

GREAT INTERNATIONAL PROJECT.

THE following communication from the Hon. Nathaniel Niles, late Chargé d'Affairs of the United States at Turin, relative to the construction of a ship-canal connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific Ocean, was presented to the Senate, in accordance with a resolution of that body, by President Fillmore :—

TURIN, June 30, 1849.

Sir :—The extraordinary development of commerce between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, which is to be a necessary and immediate consequence of the rapid settlement of the north-west coast of the American continent, from California to Vancouver's Island, by an active and enterprising population, gives an increasing and pressing interest to the great subject of a ship-channel between the two oceans, not only to the United States, but also to the whole commercial world. Were such a channel to be opened, on a scale commensurate with its present and prospective importance, it is probable that, before the lapse of any great length of time, the amount of commercial transactions through it would be greater than has at any time been carried on through the straits of Gibraltar.

The magnitude of the commercial interests to be affected by this artificial medium of communication, through all time to come, presents an unanswerable reason why the work should be executed upon a most extensive scale.

It is evident that such a channel of commercial communication should not inure to the exclusive advantage of any one nation, or to any limited number of nations, or be subjected to the liability of interruption by the eventualities of war. It should be a common international thoroughfare, always open and always free on equal terms to the commerce of all nations, great and small, the weak as well as the powerful, those nations that are situated at remote distances, as well as those in its immediate vicinity.

To secure these objects, it is necessary that it should be constructed by means of a common fund, and effectively placed under the guardianship of a universally acknowledged law of nations.

As yet no plan has been presented to the public which at the same time suggests a practical means for the accomplishment of this great ob-

ject, on a scale that is likely to meet the wants of the commercial world, and secure to all nations a common and perpetual benefit in its advantages when completed. Notwithstanding the United States have an especial interest in the early realization of this enterprise, and possess perhaps the means of executing it upon any desirable scale, yet, in view of the implied rights of others, and the jealousies and ultimate hostility which could not fail to be engendered among other nations, were it to be carried through as an exclusively national work, an elevated sense of international justice as well as a wise policy requires that it should not be taken in hand without previously extending an invitation to all the commercial nations of the earth to become joint proprietors, and to participate in its construction under such circumstances of equitable contribution to the object as will give to it the character of being a common property and a common passage, open to all upon such conditions as shall forever prevent the work from becoming obstructed, or falling into the hands of any one government or combination of governments.

The only way to insure that paramount object, is to make the whole matter of this proposed canal the subject of an international treaty, in which the governments of all the commercial countries in the world shall be invited to become parties.

In view of the foregoing considerations of international equity, and in regard to the establishment of a practical administration for the execution and preservation of this work under the common authority of nations, I have drawn up, after mature reflection, a plan which seems to me well calculated to meet all the requirements of the case. It is embraced in the form of a series of propositions, each resting on reasons that will be apparent to every reflecting mind. This plan I solicit the honor herewith to submit to the consideration of the President, and trust it will not be unworthy of his attention and approval.

It appears to me, sir, that the character of the American government cannot be exhibited in a more exalted and honorable light than by taking the lead in proposing any practicable plan for a vast ship communication between the two oceans, the advantages of which it designs shall become common and perpetual to all countries. Such an example of abnegation of selfish and exclusive interests would be the more striking and admirable when exhibited by a great and powerful country, thus voluntarily preferring to accept the sovereignty of the great principles of natural justice among nations, in reference to a work of almost incalculably vast importance, rather than attempt to secure those advantages to itself, which its geographical position and its power would perhaps enable it exclusively to possess.

PROJECT FOR UNITING THE WATERS OF THE PACIFIC AND ATLANTIC OCEANS,
BY A SHIP-CHANNEL THROUGH THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA, OR AT SOME
OTHER POINT.

1. It is proposed that the work shall be executed by the united contributions of the commercial nations of the world, or such of them as may agree in the undertaking.

2. It is proposed that the ratio of contributions among the parties shall be that of their respective amount of tonnage engaged in foreign commerce, or some analogous basis of equality that may be agreed on.

3. That the work shall be executed under the direction of seven commissioners, to be appointed one by each of the seven powers paying the highest amounts of contribution.

4. That the said commissioners shall be empowered to explore the several proposed localities proper for the construction of the canal; and that a majority of them shall decide upon the points best adapted for the execution of the work, as well as on the scale on which it is to be made.

5. That the contracting parties shall empower the said commissioners to treat with the State, through the territories of which it is contemplated to construct the canal, for the cession of the required extent of territory, with the entire sovereignty thereof from sea to sea: say a belt of six miles in width, reaching from shore to shore.

6. That the work shall be completed within a fixed number of years, say eight or ten, from the ratification of the treaty of agreement for that object by the contracting powers.

7. That each of the contracting parties shall pay into the hands of a banker, to be selected by them, one eighth or one tenth of the estimated cost, *pro rata*, of said work each year, for the eight or ten successive years. The estimate to be made by the said commissioners previous to the commencement of the work.

8. That an exact account of the detailed expenditures on the work shall be annually made by the commissioners to the government of each of the contracting parties.

9. That the vessels of the country ceding the required territory and sovereignty, shall have a free passage through said canal forever, without any charge whatever.

10. That the said canal shall be open to the navigation of the vessels of all nations, upon the payment of a duty according to the value of ship and cargo, or some other equitable principle calculated to meet incidental expenses of administration, keep the works in repair, and ultimately repay to the contracting parties their respective advances *pro rata*.

11. It is to be stipulated that any attempt of any one of the contracting parties, or of any other power, to get forcible possession of said canal, shall be considered a flagrant aggression upon the rights of each and all the other parties to this convention.

12. It is to be stipulated that, in times of war between any of the contracting parties, no seizures made within two hundred miles of either mouth of said canal shall be considered lawful prizes.

13. That ships of war shall not be permitted to approach or pass the canal with their guns mounted.

14. That it shall be the duty of the said commissioners to establish all needful regulations touching the interests of the canal, and that said regulations shall be binding on the citizens or subjects of the several contracting parties, and on all other persons.

15. That no forts or buildings of any kind shall be constructed upon

the ceded territory but such as may be thought necessary by the commissioners to carry out the objects of the proposed convention.

16. That crimes against persons, committed within the ceded territory, shall be turned over for punishment to the country ceding the territory; and that the rights of extradition be accorded to all governments, in regard to their respective subjects, who may have sought to avoid the payment of debts, or to escape from criminal justice at home, by taking refuge on the said territory.

17. It is proposed that the work be commenced as soon as a convention to that effect shall have been concurred in by seven of the principal governments—other parties being permitted to subscribe to the provisions of said convention, and to share in the execution of the work at any period during its progress.

18. That the contracting parties agree to lend the aid of their individual, friendly instances, near the government holding the desired territory, to induce it to make the required cession.

19. That it shall be the duty of the Board of Commissioners to take into consideration all representations made by either of the contracting parties, touching the police regulations of the canal, and that a majority of them shall at all times have power to change or modify such regulations.

20. That the expenses of the commissioners, and persons employed by them, shall be paid by the governments appointing them respectively, until the surveys are completed and the work entered upon; but that thereafter they are to be paid from the common fund.

21. That the President of the United States propose to the maritime powers of the world, through simultaneous instructions to our diplomatic agents in foreign countries, to unite in the execution of the work.

22. That the governments signifying their assent to the general outlines of this project, be invited to empower their respective plenipotentiaries at — to enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a joint convention to that effect with the United States.

Although the above propositions do not include all the stipulations, the introduction of which might be required in the proposed convention, yet the general scope of the undertaking, the means for its execution, as well as the mode of initiating and bringing about the pre-requisite negotiations, are, I flatter myself, sufficiently clear and explicit.

The present would seem to be an appropriate time for a candid and prompt consideration of the subject by the governments of Europe, as the prospect of carrying through an enterprise fraught with consequences so favorable to the rapid extension of Christian civilization throughout the eastern hemisphere, and the opening of so many new and prolific sources of private wealth and general public prosperity, would in no small degree serve to divert the excited and distempered popular mind of Europe from the pursuit of those visionary and impracticable political theories, so dangerous to the whole fabric of society, now so prevalent in this part of the world.

If, sir, in presenting this scheme, I have stepped beyond the strict line of my diplomatic duties, I trust an ample apology will be found in the

importance of the subject, to which the administration cannot be indifferent.

I have the honor to be, sir, with renewed expression of respectful consideration, your obedient servant.

NATHANIEL NILES.

Hon. JOHN M. CLAYTON, Secretary of State.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES REGARDING THE BOSTON SLAVE OUTRAGE.

To the Senate of the United States :

I have received a resolution from the Senate, requesting me to lay before that body any information I may possess in regard to the alleged recent case of forcible resistance to the execution of the laws of the United States in the city of Boston, and to communicate to the Senate what means I have adopted to meet the occurrence, and whether in my opinion any additional legislation is necessary to meet the exigency of the case, and more vigorously to execute the existing law. The public newspapers contain an affidavit of Patrick Riley, deputy Marshal for the District of Mass., setting forth the circumstances of the case, a copy of which affidavit is herewith communicated. Private unofficial communications concur in establishing the main facts of this account, but no satisfactory official information has as yet been received, and in some important respects the accuracy of the account has been denied by persons whom it implicates. Nothing could be more unexpected than such gross violation of the law—such high-handed contempt of the authority of the United States, perpetrated by a band of lawless confederates in the city of Boston and in the very temple of Justice. I regard this flagitious proceeding as being a surprise not unattended by some degree of negligence, nor do I doubt that if any such act of violence had been apprehended thousands of good citizens of Boston would have presented themselves promptly and voluntarily to prevent it. But their danger does not seem thoroughly made known and duly appreciated by those who are concerned in the execution of the process in a community distinguished for its love of order and respect for the laws. Among people whose sentiment is liberty and law, and not liberty without law or above the law,—such an outrage could only be the result of sudden violence, unhappily too much unprepared to be successfully resisted.

It would be melancholy indeed if we were obliged to regard this outbreak against the Constitution and legal authority of the Government as proceeding from the general feeling of the people on the spot which is proverbially called the cradle of American liberty. Such undoubtedly is not the fact. It violates without question the general sentiment of the people of Boston and the vast majority of the whole people of Massachusetts, as much as it violates the law and defies the authority of government, and disgraces those concerned in it, their aiders and abettors.

It is nevertheless my duty to lay before the Senate in answer to its resolution some important facts and considerations connected with the subject. A Resolution of Congress of Sept. 23, 1789, declared that it be recommended to the legislatures of the States to pass laws making it expressly the duty of keepers of their jails to receive into safe keeping all prisoners committed under the authority of the United States until they shall be discharged by the due course of laws thereof under the like penalties as in case of prisoners committed under the authority of such states respectively. The United States to pay for the use and keeping of such jails at the rates per month for each prisoner that shall be under their authority, and be committed thereto during the time that such prisoners shall be therein confined, and also to support such of the said prisoners as shall be committed for offences. A further resolution of Congress passed March 3d, 1791, provides that whereas Congress did by resolution on the 23d Sept., 1789, recommend to the several States to pass laws making it expressly the duty of keepers of jails to receive and safely keep therein all prisoners committed under the authority of the United States. In order, therefore, to insure the administration of justice, it was resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that in case any State shall not have complied with the same under the direction of the Judge or District Court, he be authorized to hire a convenient place to serve as temporary jail, and to make the necessary provision for the safe keeping of prisoners committed under the authority of the United States, until permanent provision by the law for that purpose; and the said Marshal shall be allowed his reasonable expenses incurred for the above purposes, to be paid out of the United States Treasury; and a resolution of Congress, of March 3d, 1821, provides that when any State or States having complied with the recommendation of Congress in the resolution of 23d day of Sept., 1789—have withdrawn wholly or in part the use of their jails for prisoners committed under the authority of the Marshal in such State or States, under the direction of the Judge of the District, shall be and hereby is authorized and required to hire convenient place to serve as a temporary jail, and to make the necessary provisions for the safe keeping of prisoners committed under the authority of the U. S. Marshal.

Permanent provisions shall be made by law for that purpose, and the said Marshal shall be allowed his reasonable expenses incurred for the above purposes, to be paid out of the U. S. Treasury. The various provisions of the law of Mass. as that stood before the act of the legislature of that State of the 4th March, 1843—common jails in the respective counties were to be used for the detention of any persons detained by the authority of the Court of the United States as well as by the courts and magistrates of that State, but these provisions were abrogated and repealed by the act of legislature on the 24th March, 1843. The act declared that the Judge of any record and that no Judge of this Commonwealth, and no Justice of the Peace shall hereafter take cognizance or grant a certificate in cases that may arise under the third section of an act of Congress passed Feb. 12, 1793, and entitled an act respecting these fugitives from justice and persons escaping from the service of their master to any person who

claims any other person as a fugitive slave within the jurisdiction of the Commonwealth, and it further declares that no sheriff, deputy sheriff, coroner, constable, jailer, or other officer of this Commonwealth shall hereafter arrest, or detain, or aid in the arrest or detention or imprisonment in any jail or other building belonging to this Commonwealth, or to any county, city or town thereof, of any prisoner for the reason that his claim as a fugitive slave, and it further declares that any justice of the peace, sheriff, coroner, constable, or jailer, who shall offend against the provisions of this law, by in any way acting directly or indirectly under the power conferred under the third section of the act aforementioned, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars for every such offence for the ease of the county where said offence is committed, or shall be subjected to imprisonment one year in the county jail. This law, it is obvious, had two objects. The first was to make it a penal offence in all officers and magistrates to exercise the powers conferred on them by the act of Congress of Feb. 12, 1793, entitled an act respecting fugitives and persons escaping from the service of their masters, and which powers they were fully competent to perform up to the time of this inhibition and penal enactment. Second, to refuse the use of the jails of the State for the detention of any person claimed as a fugitive slave. It is deeply to be lamented that the purposes of these enactments are quite apparent to prevent so far as the legislature of the State could prevent the laws of Congress passed into acts. That article of the Constitution of the United States which declares that no person shall be held to service or labor in one State under the laws thereof escaping to another State, shall not in consequence of any law or regulation be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service is due.

These acts of the State legislature, although they may cause embarrassment, cannot derogate either from the duty or the authority of Congress to carry out fully and fairly the plain and imperative constitutional provisions for delivery of persons bound to labor to another in one State, and escaping into another to the party to whom such labor may be due. It is quite clear that by the resolution of Congress of March 3d, 1821, the Marshal of the United States in any State in which the use of the jails of any State has been withdrawn in whole or in part from the purposes of the detention of persons committed under the authority of the United States is not only empowered but expressly required under the direction of the Judge of the District Court to hire a convenient place for the safe keeping of prisoners committed under authority of the U. S. It will be seen from papers accompanying this communication, that the attention of the Marshals of Massachusetts was distinctly called to this provision of the law by a letter from the Secretary of the Navy, of the date of Oct. 28th last. There is no official information that the Marshal has provided any such place for the confinement of his prisoners. If he has not, it is to be regretted that this power was not exercised by the Marshal under the direction of the District Judge, immediately on the passage of the act of the Legislature of Massachusetts, of March 24th, 1843, and especially that it was not exercised on the passage of the fugitive slave law

of the last session, or when the attention of the Marshal was afterwards particularly drawn to it. It is true that the escape from the deputy marshals in this case was not owing to the want of a prison, or place of confinement; but still it is not easy to see how the prisoner could have been safely and conveniently detained during an adjournment of the hearing without some such place of confinement, or if it shall appear that no such place has been obtained, directions to the Marshal will be given to lose no time in the discharge of this duty. I transmit to the Senate a copy of a proclamation issued by me on the 18th inst. in relation to those unexpected and deplorable occurrences in Boston, together with copies of instructions from the Departments of War and Navy, relative to the subject; also copies of telegraphic despatches transmitted from the Department of State to the District Attorney and Marshal of the U. S. for the district of Massachusetts, and their answers thereto.

In regard to the law branch of the inquiry made by the resolution of the Senate, I have to observe that the Constitution declares that the President shall take care that the law be faithfully executed, and that he shall be Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the U. S., and of the States when called into the actual service of the U. S., and that Congress shall have power to provide for calling upon the Militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrection, and repel invasion; from which it appears that the army and navy are by the constitution placed under the control of the Executive; and probably no legislation of Congress could add to, or diminish the power thus given, but by increasing or diminishing or abolishing altogether the army and navy, but not so with the militia. The President cannot call the militia into service, even to execute the laws or repel invasion except by the authority of acts of Congress passed for that purpose. But when the militia are called into service in the manner prescribed by law, the Constitution itself gives the command to the President. Acting on this principle, Congress, by the Act of Feb. 28th, 1795, authorized the President to call forth the militia to repel invasion and suppress insurrections against a State government, and to suppress combinations against the laws of the United States, and cause the laws to be faithfully executed; but this Act proceeds to declare that whenever it may be necessary in the judgment of the President, to use the military force thereby directed to be called forth, the President shall forthwith by proclamation command such insurgents to disperse and retire peacefully to their respective abodes within a limited time. These words are broad enough to require a proclamation in all cases where the militia are called out under that Act, whether to repel invasion or suppress an insurrection, or to aid in executing the laws. There is consequently some doubt whether the militia could be called forth in executing the laws without a proclamation; but yet the proclamation seems to be in words directed only against Insurgents, and to require them to disperse; thereby implying not only an insurrection, but an organized, or at least an imbodyed force. Such a proclamation in aid of the civil authority, would often defeat the whole object, by giving such notice to persons intended to be arrested that they would be enabled to fly or secrete themselves. The force may be wanted sometimes to make the arrest, and also sometimes to protect the officer after it is made

and to prevent a rescue. I would, therefore, suggest that this section be modified by declaring that nothing therein contained shall be construed to require any previous proclamation when the militia are called forth either to repel invasion, to execute the laws, or suppress combination against them; and that the President may make such call, and place such militia under the control of any civil officer of the United States, to aid him in executing the laws, or suppressing such combination; and while so employed they shall be paid by and subsisted at the expense of the United States Congress, not, probably, adverting to the difference between the militia and the regular army, by the Act of March 3d, 1807, authorizing the President to use the land and naval force of the United States, for the same purposes for which he might call forth the militia, and subject to the same Proclamation; but the power of the President under the Constitution as Commander of the Army and Navy, is general, and his duty to see the laws faithfully executed is general and positive, and the Act of 1807 ought not to be construed as evincing any disposition on the part of Congress to limit or restrain this constitutional authority. However, it may be well that Congress should modify or explain this Act in regard to its provisions, for the employment of the Army and Navy of the U. S., as well as that in regard to calling forth the militia. It is supposed not to be doubtful that all citizens, whether enrolled in the militia or not, may be summoned as members of the *Posse Comitatus*, either by the Marshal or a Commissioner, according to law, and that it is their duty to obey such summons; but perhaps it may be doubted whether the Marshal or a Commissioner can summon, as the *Posse Comitatus*, an organized militia force, acting under its own appropriate officers, without the consent of such officers. This point may deserve the consideration of Congress. I use the occasion to repeat the assurance, that so far as depends on me, the laws shall be faithfully executed, and all forcible opposition to them suppressed, and to this end I am prepared to exercise, whenever it may become necessary, the power constitutionally invested in me, to the fullest extent. I am fully persuaded that the great majority of the people of this country are warmly and strongly attached to the Constitution, the preservation of the Union, the support of the Government, and the maintenance of the authority of Law. I am persuaded that their earnest wishes, and the line of my constitutional duty, entirely concur; and I doubt not that firmness, moderation, and prudence, strengthened and animated by the general opinion of the people, will prevent the repetition of occurrences disturbing the public peace, and reprobated by all good men.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

Proclamation of the President of the United States, on the same subject.

Whereas, information has been received that sundry lawless persons, principally persons of color, combined and confederated together, for the purpose of opposing by force the execution of the laws of the United States, did at Boston, in Massachusetts, on the fifteenth of this month, make a

violent assault on the marshal or deputy marshals of the United States for the district of Massachusetts, in the court-house, and did overcome the said officers, and did, by force, rescue from their custody a person arrested as a fugitive slave, and then and there a prisoner lawfully holden by the said marshal or deputy marshals of the United States, and other scandalous outrages did commit, in violation of law :

Now, therefore, to the end that the authority of the laws may be maintained, and those concerned in violating them brought to immediate and condign punishment, I have issued this my Proclamation, calling on all well-disposed citizens to rally to the support of the laws of their country, and requiring and commanding all officers, civil and military, and all other persons, civil or military, who shall be found within the vicinity of this outrage, to be aiding and assisting, by all means in their power, in quelling this and other such combinations, and assisting the marshal and his deputies in recapturing the above-mentioned prisoner ; and I do especially direct that prosecutions be commenced against all persons who shall have made themselves aiders or abettors in or to this flagitious offence ; and I do further command that the district attorney of the United States, and all other persons concerned in the administration or execution of the laws of the United States, cause the foregoing offenders, and all such as aided, abetted, or assisted them, or shall be found to have harbored or concealed such fugitive, contrary to law, to be immediately arrested and proceeded with according to law.

Given under my hand, and the seal of the United States, this 18th day of February, 1851.

[L. S.]

MILLARD FILLMORE.

DAN'L WEBSTER, Secretary of State.

Letter from the Secretary of State to the Mayor of Boston, on the preceding subject.

WASHINGTON, March 10, 1851.

HON. JOHN P. BIGELOW, MAYOR OF BOSTON :

SIR—The President has had the pleasure to receive your letter of the 26th February, enclosing official copies of the order and resolves lately adopted by the two branches of the Government of the city of Boston.

It affords him great satisfaction to perceive, that such measures have been taken by the authorities of Boston, as give assurance that no other outrage, similar to that which was, he presumes, the immediate cause of their adoption, will be permitted to take place in your city.

From his earliest youth, he has been accustomed to regard with the greatest respect and veneration the city of Boston, and the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

He has been taught to believe, that their inhabitants were, almost above all others, the friends of order and good government ; intelligent enough to appreciate the advantages of free institutions of their own choice, and capable of understanding and resolving that great political problem, of the compatibility of freedom with order, of liberty distinguish-

ed from licentiousness, and of self-government the farthest removed from the dangers of anarchy ; that they were especially devoted to the Union of the States, and to the Constitution which established, and still maintains that Union ; and that their patriotism would never fail to counsel them to fulfil all their obligations under the Constitution, justly and fully, and in the very spirit in which such obligations were entered into by their renowned ancestors.

Entertaining these sentiments, it was difficult for the President to credit the accounts which were received, of the outrage on all law, perpetrated in Boston, on the 15th of February last.

That a prisoner, in lawful custody, within the walls of the Court House, in the centre of the city, and in full sight of the offices of all the municipal authorities, had been, at noonday, forcibly rescued, by a mob of one or two hundred persons, from the officers of the law, carried out of the building, and through the public streets, in a sort of triumph, and enabled to escape altogether, without an attempt on the part of any of the authorities, or any of the citizens, to preserve order and maintain the law, or to pursue and re-take the fugitive, was a statement that seemed to him too improbable to be true.

It was with a feeling of great relief that he received such explanations of this strange occurrence, as showed it to have been an entire surprise upon the citizens, and upon the authorities ; an act of successful temerity, on the part of a very inconsiderable number of persons, which only needed to have been apprehended the shortest time beforehand, to have been prevented.

The President is confident that the great majority of the citizens of Boston are entirely loyal to the Constitution ; that they view with just indignation all such outrages, and all attempts, whether by writing or speaking, to incite the ignorant and unthinking to such acts of violence ; and that they are ready to discharge the duties incumbent on them, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, faithfully and fearlessly, under all circumstances, whenever called upon by the proper authorities.

The occurrence of the 15th February is certainly greatly to be regretted, as it gives occasion to those not unwilling to seize upon it, to question the disposition of your fellow-citizens to comply with their constitutional obligations in good faith ; and the history of such an outrage is spread far and wide, reaches where an explanation of it may never follow, and creates ill-feeling towards those whose only connection with it is that they were residents of the place in which it was perpetrated. But if, as the President doubts not it will, this event shall arouse the attention of all good citizens to a sense of the dangers to be apprehended from the inculcation of such doctrines as have been spread abroad in the country, tending to shake the authority of all law, to unsettle society, and to absolve men from all civil and moral obligations ; and shall put them on their guard against the further diffusion of such pernicious sentiments, it may, in the end, be productive of happy results ; and, certainly, the almost unanimous expression of indignation which it called forth among your citizens, balances, to some extent, the ill effect flowing from it.

The President does not doubt that the people of Massachusetts per-

fectly well understand the difference between the freest discussion of political measures, and opposition to legal enactments already made and established. He is quite sure that they regard the law of the land not as a sentiment, or an opinion; but as a rule of conduct prescribed by the general authority, and which all are bound to obey, at the risk of the penalties attached to its violation.

The President directs me to tender you his thanks for the transmission of the resolutions.

I remain, Mr. Mayor, with great respect, your obedient servant,

DANL. WEBSTER.

OCEAN STEAMERS BETWEEN CALIFORNIA AND CHINA.

Report of the Committee on Naval Affairs of the House of Representatives, on the Memorial of Ambrose W. Thompson, proposing to establish a Line of Mail Steamers between California and China, and between Philadelphia and Norfolk, Va. and Europe.

THE Committee of Naval Affairs, to whom were referred that part of the President's Message and accompanying documents which relates to the Navy of the United States, and also sundry memorials of citizens, proposing the establishment of a line of communication by Steamships, between the United States and Asia, having had under consideration the recommendation of the Secretary of the Navy on the subject of such communication, as well as the terms and conditions of the said proposals, beg leave to submit the following report:

Deeply impressed with the vast importance of a regular line of communication between the Western Coast of the United States and the ports of Eastern Asia, the Committee have readily concurred in the wise recommendation of the Secretary of the Navy, and have anxiously inquired into the best means of effecting the great object proposed. After mature consideration, they have arrived at the conclusion that the system hitherto adopted by the Government for like purposes, having had the test of experience, in this, as well as in other countries, ought not to be departed from in the present instance. Adopting, therefore, the policy of encouraging and sustaining private enterprise, in order to effect great national objects, the Committee have endeavored to select, among the several propositions made, one which seemed to them to be most advantageous to the Government, and most likely to be successful in the end; while at the same time, its terms are just and fair. It is believed that the memorial of Ambrose W. Thompson, of Philadelphia, contains such a proposition, and the Committee present it to the consideration of the House, with the hope that it will be adopted.

Mr. Thompson proposes to establish lines of Mail Steamers from some point in the bay of San Francisco, California, to the free ports of China, touching at the Sandwich Islands in going and returning; and from Philadelphia, in Pennsylvania, and Norfolk, in Virginia, to Antwerp, or

Ostend, touching at Dover or Portsmouth, in England, and Havre, in France.

Looking at the connection of the Pacific and Atlantic coasts of the United States, by Railroad, he proposes to unite in his contract these two projects, with a strong conviction that the two, thus connected, will become the medium of transporting the products of India through the United States to Europe.

He proposes to construct ten Steamships, of not less than three thousand tons burthen, with a capacity for speed equal to that of any Steamships which navigate the Atlantic Ocean. They are to be built under the inspection and supervision of the Navy Department, and to be so constructed as to be convertible into War Steamers of the first class. They are to be so equipped and armed, that they can change their ordinary employment for those of a Ship of War, without delay or material alteration. The Commanders and watch-officers are to be from the Navy of the United States, detailed for that purpose by the Secretary. The ships are to be navigated at the expense of the memorialist, and to be subject to such inspection, from time to time, as the Secretary of the Navy may order. The contractor will be bound, at his own cost, to make such repairs as may be required, and to introduce all such improvements in machinery as may be deemed better calculated to secure efficiency. The ships are to be liable to be taken by the Government for its own use, at a fair valuation, at any time during the term of the contract, which is to continue for ten years. The memorialist proposes to carry the mails, and, instead of receiving an annual compensation for the service, as in other contracts for foreign mail transportation, to receive only such postage on the mail matter carried in his ships, as may be established by the Postmaster General according to law; but if at any future time the amount of postage received shall exceed, in proportion to the number of ships employed, the compensation now allowed by law for the mails carried in Steamships between New York and Liverpool, such excess to be paid into the Treasury.

For the construction, equipment and armament of the ships, it is proposed that the Government shall issue a six per cent. stock redeemable in ten years. The application of its proceeds to these objects is to be guarded by ample security, and the issue to be made by the Secretary of the Treasury on the requisition of the Secretary of the Navy. The contractor is required to pay into the Treasury of the United States, the amount of the semi-annual dividends, as they may fall due to the bondholders; and he is to execute a mortgage on the ships to secure the payment of the interest, as well as the ultimate redemption of the stock by him, either at its maturity, or when the Government may appropriate the said ships to its own use. But at the expiration of five years from the commencement of the service, the contractor is required to make an annual payment of ten per cent. upon the principal of these bonds, so that at the expiration of his contract, the amount due will be but one half the original debt; and in addition to this, he may at any time pay into the Treasury such portions of the principal of said stock as the Secretary of the Treasury may consent to receive, and release himself to that extent,

from his obligation to redeem the principal and to pay the dividends thereon.

The proposed contract relates to a subject of great public interest, and the Committee have given to it, in all its parts, the most careful consideration.

The policy of adding to the naval forces of the United States efficient Steamers, prepared on any emergency for belligerent operations, has been repeatedly considered and urged on the favorable consideration of Congress, both by your Committee and by the Executive. The commerce and navigation of the United States are rapidly increasing, and the duty of protection to these great interests, imperatively requires that we should not be deficient in those means which other maritime nations are steadily augmenting. The successful introduction of steam in ocean navigation has rendered a strong auxiliary force of steamers an indispensable appendage to the navies of the world. To no country will they be more important, in the operations of war, than to the United States. Our true policy, as well as our geographical position, will always render defence the most important of our duties, when in the vicissitude of human affairs, the necessity of war shall arise.

Steamers in commission as ships of war, carrying no freight, are so much more expensive than sailing vessels, that the number maintained in actual service will always be very limited. If built by the Government, and kept in ordinary, it is believed that the annual loss by decay, and wear and tear, is not less than $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the entire cost of construction. Economy, therefore, is greatly promoted by the system which secures efficient steamships in the best serviceable condition for immediate use, and subject to be taken by the Government when the emergency may arise. In this view Congress passed the acts authorizing the contracts now existing, under which lines of steamers have been established from New-York to Bremen, from New-York to Chagres, and from Panama to Oregon. The very nature of our Government demands, that in the exercise of its acknowledged powers for the public objects it was ordained to promote, it shall select those means which will confer the greatest incidental benefit upon all classes of the people, without injury to any, and without detriment to the public interest. That system, therefore, which gives profit to mechanics in the construction of the ships and their machinery; to seamen, in navigating them; to commerce, by multiplying its avenues; to agriculture, by opening new markets; and to the Government, by increasing its revenues at the Custom-house; and which, at the same time, secures efficient steamships of war when the public exigencies may require them, is wise and beneficent, and when recommended by economy, is required by the best interests of the country. The contracts already in legal operation, when completed, will render available for Government purposes, if required, seventeen war steamers. These lines all terminate at New-York, or are in direct connection with that great and growing city.

The plan now proposed will add ten first class steamers to the number; and it appears to the Committee that the proposed termination of the Atlantic portion of the lines at Philadelphia and Norfolk, recommend it

to favorable consideration. It is due to the States of the confederacy to diffuse as far as practicable, without public injury, the benefits resulting from the operations of the Federal Government. The States of Pennsylvania and Virginia, at their own cost, have constructed expensive improvements, which bring to the seaboard the staples of foreign commerce in great quantity and value: and it is not unreasonable that they should desire to participate in those arrangements which secure a direct communication with foreign markets.

The acquisition of California presents facilities for trade and intercourse with China which ought not to be neglected. It is believed that steamers can regularly make the voyage from the Bay of San Francisco to China in twenty days: and by the circuitous route over the Isthmus now necessarily used, communication is maintained between the Western coast and our Atlantic cities in little more than thirty days. Thus the establishment of a line of steamers on the Pacific, would place New-York within less than sixty days of Macao. The trade with China in sailing vessels, which go around the cape, now labors under a great disadvantage in the length of time required for the voyage. It may be assumed that an average of ten months is required to make the return; and the voyage from Europe to China and back, may be considered as occupying an average of full twelve months. With the facilities now existing, and with the addition of the Pacific line proposed by the memorialists, the communication between Liverpool and China would be reduced to sixty days, and the return of an adventure from London to China might be received by the way of the United States in less than five months, less than half the time now required.

The commerce of India has always enriched the nation enjoying it. The exports of China have so much value in proportion to their bulk, that they can well afford to bear the cost of steam transportation. With all the advantages which will be possessed by a line of six steamers of enormous capability for freight, wearing the flag of the United States, commanded by officers of the navy, making their trips with regularity, and much more speedily than on other routes, it is certain that the rich stream of Eastern Commerce would flow into the United States; that new markets would be opened among the dense population of the East, for our varied productions; and that a great increase of public revenue would result from increased importations; and if goods imported be not entered, but warehoused, a vast advantage would follow to our commercial and shipping interests. Shippers of goods, to be warehoused and sent to a more favorable market, would necessarily draw on their consignees, and the additional great commercial advantage of exchange would thus be secured to our merchants.

The competitors for the China trade are the British and American merchants. The commerce of the United States with China, has been steadily increasing, and it can scarcely be doubted that the contemplated facility of communication by steam will give to our enterprising countrymen, advantages which cannot be countervailed by those of any European nation.

One of the greatest and most important effects of the concentration of

this commerce at some point in the Bay of San Francisco, (where must necessarily be located the depot on the Pacific) and the extension of our intercourse with the Asiatic nations, would be to hasten the adoption of some practicable plan for connecting the two oceans by a railroad across the continent; thus binding together two widely separated members of our confederacy, not only by the moral influence of the same constitution and laws, but by another link in that vast system of improvement by which the common welfare is to be so greatly promoted, and by which alone, the remote State of California, and the co-terminous possessions of the United States can be brought into those easy and intimate relations, and that constant intercourse, which ought to subsist between all parts of the same Government. The Committee forbear to express in connection with this subject, any opinion upon the particular projects which have been submitted to Congress for an overland communication with the Pacific, regarding them all as calculated to advance an object second to no other in importance to this country, and intended to secure the completion of an enterprise, which besides affording extraordinary advantages to agricultural, and manufacturing, and other great pursuits, is destined also to contribute its mighty influence towards a revolution in the commerce of the world.

The presence of so large a number of armed ships, appearing in quick succession, though in the peaceful pursuits of commerce, will give constant and efficient protection to American rights and interests at all points on the Pacific, and on the coast of China. Serving in this respect all the purposes of cruisers, they will enable the Government to reduce the naval forces employed on that unhealthy section, and to use them more advantageously in other quarters of the globe.

The plan proposed seems to be recommended by economy and by the highest considerations of public policy.

The inducement offered the contractor by the Government, is, the issue of scrip to be applied to the construction of the vessels, and the privilege accorded him of securing such compensation for mail matter transported as would by law accrue to the Government as postage. This latter privilege to continue only so long as the Government may permit. The agreement to issue scrip deserves, and it has received, the most careful examination.

By an existing law, it is provided, that when Congress shall direct an increase of the Navy, by the addition of Steamers, the President shall have authority in his discretion, to cause them to be built by contract with individuals, or at the public Navy Yards. In all cases of construction by contract with individuals, the responsibility of the contractor terminates when his work is finished, and the stipulated price has been received. The interest of the Government and that of the contractor are in conflict from the date of the contract..

The contracts for the transportation of the foreign mails heretofore made by the Government have all provided for the payment of an annual compensation to the contractors as mail carriers; but the principal object was, without doubt, to secure by this means, steamships for the navy in case of emergency. In all these contracts Congress has found it neces-

sary to advance considerable sums, before the service commenced, to aid the contractors in constructing their vessels. Under the obligations of these several contracts, annual appropriations are made for payment to the contractors. For the line between New-York and Liverpool, an annual compensation of three hundred and ninety thousand dollars was not deemed unreasonable; and the contract when fully executed will make available for public use only five first class steamers.

A plan different from those already stated is now proposed. Instead of an annual appropriation to pay the contractor for carrying the mails, he proposes to receive only the postages, and look to this source with the freights he may be able to command by the superior condition of his ships, and to skill and economy in their management, for his reward. But the outlay for construction is to be provided by the issue of Government scrip, made in advance, but redeemable after the service has been performed. No payment from the Treasury will be required to meet the accruing interest on the scrip, for the contractor is required to give satisfactory security that he will meet this liability; and the redemption of the stock by him, if the Government shall not appropriate the ships to its own use, is secured by a mortgage on the ships which the strongest motives of interest will impel the contractor to construct and equip in the most perfect manner, and keep constantly in the most serviceable condition. If he fail to do either, he must be utterly ruined, under the obligations of his contract; and if likely to fail in his duty in this respect, the Government may at all times compel him to perform it or abrogate the contract, taking to itself the entire property in the Steamships. It can only be regarded as a contract by which the Government secures great public advantages, and by which the ships are in effect the property of the Government, and the scrip as only its promise to pay the cost of construction and equipment, when the service has been performed, and the ships are required for naval purposes; while the Government will secure by its powers of supervision that the funds will be faithfully applied to the purposes of the contract. The practical effect of the arrangement will be that the Government will have in actual service ten first-class Steamships, without expense for the service, or for maintaining and repairing them, with every possible assurance that they will be kept in the most serviceable condition, and subject to be taken for its use at its pleasure. The obligation to pay at a future day cannot exceed the cost of construction and equipment, and its lien on the ships cannot be evaded or defeated.

In every view of the subject, the committee regard it as a most favorable contract for the Government; and the fact that a citizen of character, and an enterprising and successful man of business, is willing to devote his time and energy to an enterprise in which his reward will depend on the successful employment of the ships as carriers of freights, tends strongly to show that the routes are well selected—that the commerce of the country will be greatly extended—and that the Government will not be in danger of finding its vessels, at any time, in a neglected or unserviceable condition.

Strongly impressed with the belief that the system is wise, that the

number of available Steamers yet secured, with those now proposed, is far short of the necessities of the United States, when compared with the steam marine of other nations—that the details of this contract are favorable to the Government, and that the mode of providing for the construction of the ships is not only free from well-grounded objections, but more economical and better calculated to insure efficiency than any other, the Committee report a Bill in conformity with the proposition stated.

FREDERICK P. STANTON,
Chairman of Committee on Naval Affairs.

CONCLUSION OF THE CORRESPONDENCE ON THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN QUESTION.

Austrian Legation, at Washington, }
The 11th March, 1851. }

Mr. Secretary of State :

I have received an answer to the despatches with which I had sent to Vienna the note that you did me the honor to address to me on the 21st December last ; and I hasten to inform you, Mr. Secretary of State, that the arguments contained in your note have not had power to change the judgment which the Imperial Cabinet had formed respecting the mission of Mr. Dudley Mann, as well as respecting the tenor and the terms of the instructions with which he was furnished. The Imperial Government does not cease to entertain the opinions contained in my note of the 30th September ; and it declines all ulterior discussion of that annoying incident, unwilling to expose the kind and friendly relations which it desires to preserve with the Government of the United States to the danger of being seriously disturbed by discussions which could have no practical result.

President Fillmore declared, in his message of the 2d December last, that he was determined to act towards other nations as the United States desired that other nations should act towards them ; and that he had adopted as a rule for his policy, good-will towards foreign powers, and the abstaining from interference in their internal affairs. Austria has not demanded, and will never demand, anything but the putting into practice of these principles ; and the Imperial Government is sincerely disposed to remain in friendly relations with the Government of the United States, so long as the United States shall not deviate from these principles.

Please to accept, Mr. Secretary of State, the assurances of my high consideration.

HULSEMANN.

Department of State, }
Washington, March 15, 1851. }

The undersigned has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the Chevalier Hülsemann's note of the 11th of this month, which has been submitted to the President.

The President regrets that the note of the undersigned, addressed to

the Chevalier Hülsemann on the 21st of December last, was not satisfactory to the Imperial Government, and that its opinion remains unchanged respecting the mission of Mr. A. Dudley Mann, and the instructions with which he was furnished. He is gratified, however, to learn that the Imperial Government desires to continue the friendly relations now so happily subsisting between the two Governments—a desire in which he cordially concurs.

The President is also gratified to learn that the sentiments respecting the international relations between the United States and foreign powers contained in his last annual Message, meet the approbation of the Imperial Government; and he directs me to assure the Chevalier Hülsemann that he intends to act steadily in accordance with those sentiments.

The Government of the United States is as little inclined as the Cabinet at Vienna to prolong the discussion of the topics to which the Chevalier Hülsemann's note of the 30th of September of last year gave rise.

In his reply to that note the undersigned stated the grounds upon which this Government held itself justified in everything which it had done connected with the mission of Mr. A. Dudley Mann, and the instructions which were given to him; and he took the occasion also of declaring the principles and the policy which the United States maintain, as appropriate to their condition, and as being, indeed, fixed and fastened upon them by their character, their history, and their position among the nations of the world; and it may be regarded as certain that these principles and this policy will not be abandoned or departed from until some extraordinary change shall take place in the general current of human affairs.

The undersigned renews to the Chevalier Hülsemann the expression of his sentiments of regard.

DANL. WEBSTER.

The Chevalier J. G. Hülsemann,

Chargé d'Affaires of Austria, Washington.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF WAR TO THE GOVERNOR OF FLORIDA, REGARDING THE INDIANS OF THAT STATE.

War Department,
Washington, March 21, 1851. }

Sir—Your letter of the 13th ult., inclosing the copy of an act recently passed by the Legislature of Florida, "To provide for the final removal of the Indians now remaining in Florida, beyond the limits of the State," was received in due course of mail, but constant and urgent business has prevented me from making an earlier reply to it. I have no doubt that the Indians still remaining in Florida are a source of annoyance and injury to that State, and I regret exceedingly that all the efforts of this Department to prevail upon them to migrate have, thus far, proved unavailing. The Department will, however, persevere in these efforts, and does

not despair of its ultimate success. For the present, however, it can employ none but peaceable means to effect this object.

The small military force which it has at its disposal is absolutely necessary for the protection of the frontier, not against such inconvenience and injury as those to which the inhabitants of Florida are exposed, by the vicinity of a small remnant of a tribe, who have for years been harmless, but against the continual incursions of numerous and powerful tribes of Indians in a state of actual hostility. Such is the situation, at this moment, of the inhabitants of Texas, of California, and New Mexico; and I am quite sure that the good people of Florida would regret to see any portion of the very inadequate force employed in the protection of that distant and defenceless region, diverted from its purpose.

There is another difficulty. The appropriations made by Congress for the support of the army, during the approaching fiscal year, are entirely inadequate to the purpose; and even if the Department had at its disposal the military force necessary to enable it to make war against the Indians in Florida, it would be prevented from doing so by the want of funds. By the seventh section of the act, a copy of which is inclosed in your letter, it appears that the Legislature of Florida (who are presumed to be well informed on this subject) estimate that the expense of effecting the forcible removal of the Indians would be not less than \$2,000,000 (two millions of dollars). You will readily perceive, therefore, that the Executive would reluctantly embark in an undertaking which would involve such a heavy expenditure, until Congress had sanctioned it, and provided the means of carrying it into execution.

As regards the plan suggested by you, of sending a party to survey the land now occupied by the Indians under an escort of a regiment of volunteers, with orders "to capture all the Indians they fall in with, and to destroy their towns," I have only to remark, that this Department has neither the authority to survey public lands, or to raise a volunteer regiment for the purpose of protecting those engaged in such an operation.

I beg leave, however, to assure you that this Department is employing, and will continue to employ, all the means at its disposal to effect a speedy removal of these Indians, and to express the hope and the belief that neither the Government nor the inhabitants of Florida will, by any precipitate proceeding, interfere with and thwart its efforts. I have no doubt that such proceedings would rather retard than expedite the accomplishment of the object they have in view.

I remain, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

C. M. CONRAD, *Secretary of War.*

His Excellency, Thomas Brown,

Governor of Florida, Tallahassee, Florida.

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE AMERICAN MINISTER AT LONDON AND THE BRITISH SECRETARY FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS, REGARDING THE DUES ON UNITED STATES VESSELS IN BRITISH PORTS.

[No. I.]

MR. LAWRENCE TO VISCOUNT PALMERSTON.—(RECEIVED JANUARY 2, 1851.)

United States Legation,
138 Piccadilly, December 31, 1850. }

THE undersigned, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of America, has the honor, under instructions from his Government, to invite the attention of Viscount Palmerston, Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, to the subject of the light dues exacted of the mercantile marine of the United States entering the ports of the United Kingdom.

It is nearly two years since her Majesty's Government determined to respond to the invitation of the United States, made to the world many years ago, and recommend Parliament to repeal the prohibitory Navigation Laws of the Kingdom; and the commerce of the two nations has been conducted for now just one year on the reciprocal basis established in accordance with such recommendation. The United States ask Great Britain to carry out this principle; to establish reciprocity in fact as well as in name; to do justice to the commerce of the United States.

The light-houses, floating lights, buoys and beacons on the whole sea and lake coast, and rivers of the United States, were constructed and are maintained by the Federal Government, an annual appropriation being made by Congress for these objects. No light dues of any kind are levied, either on vessels of the United States, or on ships of foreign nations. In the year 1792 there were but 10 lights in the Union. In the year 1848 there were 270 light-houses, 30 floating lights, 1000 buoys, besides numerous fixed beacons. There are probably at this time, including those under construction on the Pacific coast, more than 300 light-houses, with a proportionate number of floating lights, buoys, &c., all of which are given to the use of the world by the United States, without tax or charge.

The commerce of the United States is not met with a corresponding liberality in the ports of the United Kingdom. The reciprocity intended to be established by the Navigation Law of last year, and so much to be wished for between the two greatest commercial nations of the globe, will not be realized if American tonnage continues subjected to onerous light dues in Great Britain, while British vessels enjoy without pay, the lights, &c., upon the coast of the United States.

The undersigned is not unaware that the system of light dues in this country is somewhat complicated; but he believes that as reforms have been made in many other laws and customs adopted in former ages under a different state of society, so changes can be made in these, adapting

them more to the present condition of the world, and to the liberal policy of other nations.

In illustration of the onerous and unequal operation of the present system of lights in Great Britain upon American commerce, the undersigned has the honor to ask Viscount Palmerston's attention to a few examples.

The American mail-steamers entering at Liverpool pay for light dues the sum of £62 for each voyage. If the British steamers were subjected to the same charge in American ports, it would amount annually to the great sum of £3224. Two steamers, the Washington and Hermann, returning from New York to Bremen, and touching on the way at Southampton, paid last year light dues to the amount of £800, including the charges for the Heligoland light, which the undersigned is informed they have never seen. The steamer Franklin, running between New York and Havre, and touching at Cowes, but without anchoring, merely to land its mails, has been subjected to light dues, which have been paid by order of the Trinity House, but under protest of the consignees. One commercial house in New York, running sixteen ships between that port, Liverpool, and London, paid last year for such dues, £2498 3s. 6d. Another American shipping house paid for lights in 1849, the sum of £2252.

The undersigned will not multiply individual examples of the amount of this tax. The number of American ships that entered the ports of the United Kingdom for the nine months ending October 1, 1850, was six hundred and two (602), with a tonnage of four hundred and seventy-three thousand nine hundred (473,900). If one third be added for the last quarter of the year, the total will be seven hundred and fifty-two (752) ships, and about six hundred thousand tons, being an average of nearly eight hundred (800) tons to each ship. Assuming this calculation to be substantially correct, it appears from the Trade List, that three thousand nine hundred and nine (3,909) American vessels have entered the ports of the United Kingdom in the last four years, with a tonnage of two millions four hundred and twenty-two thousand four hundred and ninety-two (2,422,492.) During the last ten years, the number of American vessels entered in the United Kingdom has been seventy-eight hundred and seventy-two (7872), with an aggregate of four millions six hundred and eighty-one thousand nine hundred and twenty-five (4,681,925) tons.

The light dues are not the same in all the ports of the United Kingdom. The rate at Liverpool is ten pence halfpenny (10½d.) or eleven pence (11d.), whereas in London the charge is thirteen pence (13d.) per ton. If the average is taken at one shilling (1s.) per ton, a ship of eight hundred (800) tons would pay forty pounds (£40), and seven hundred and fifty-two (752) ships, with six hundred thousand (600,000) tons register, would pay about thirty thousand pounds (£30,000), or one hundred and forty-six thousand dollars (\$146,000) annually, and it is not probable that the amount of tonnage will decrease in coming years. Thirty-nine hundred and nine (3909) American ships must have paid with a tonnage of two millions four hundred and twenty-two thousand four hundred and ninety-two (2,422,492), the sum of one hundred and twenty-one thousand pounds (£121,000) or nearly six hundred thousand dollars (\$600,000).

And within ten years last past, the shipping of the United States has contributed upon seven thousand eight hundred and seventy-two (7872) vessels, the aggregate tonnage of which was four million six hundred and eighty-one thousand nine hundred and twenty-five (4,681,925) the immense sum of two hundred and thirty-four thousand pounds (£234,000), or over one million one hundred thousand dollars (\$1,100,000), for the light-house system of the United Kingdom.

During the last year there appears to have been levied upon the shipping of the world, for the light dues in the United Kingdom, between four and five hundred thousand pounds. Of this one fourteenth part was paid by the citizens of the United States: while British subjects, with a fleet doubtless equally large in the ports of the United States, have not been taxed at all for the maintenance of lights. The Government of the United States, in view of its liberality, is justified in asking her Majesty's Government to do away with this great inequality, and remove this restriction on commerce.

The undersigned believes that no other nation levies so heavy a tax upon ships in the form of light dues as this. There are in the United States many more lighthouses, &c., than in the United Kingdom; yet the annual appropriation for the construction of new, the repair of old lighthouses, and the maintenance of both, does not equal one fifth of the annual amount raised for this purpose in the United Kingdom by the tax on the shipping coming into its ports.

In conclusion, the undersigned, on behalf of his Government, expresses the wish that her Majesty's Government may take this grave subject into consideration; that it may speedily set free American shipping from so unequal and so onerous a restriction; that it may complete its great measures for commercial freedom; and may thus increase still more the intercommunication which is already producing so happy results. The undersigned, &c.

(Signed,)

ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

(No. 2.)

VISCOUNT PALMERSTON TO MR. LAWRENCE.

Foreign Office, Feb. 6, 1851.

The undersigned, &c., has the honor to inform Mr. Lawrence, &c., that her Majesty's Government has had under its consideration the note which Mr. Lawrence addressed to the undersigned on the 31st of December, complaining that heavy light dues are levied on American shipping in the ports of the United Kingdom, whilst no dues of the same kind are charged upon British ships frequenting the ports of the United States; and Mr. Lawrence says that he is instructed by his Government to request that measures may be taken in order that American vessels may enjoy in British ports, in regard to exemption both from light dues and from other similar charges, the same advantages which British vessels enjoy in the ports of the United States.

In reply, the undersigned has the honor to state, that the difference between the treatment of British vessels in American ports, and that of American vessels in British ports, in regard to light dues, is a consequence

of the difference which exists between the system on which coast lights are maintained in the United States, and the system on which such lights are maintained in the United Kingdom.

In the United States the coast lights are erected and maintained by the Federal Government, and the expenses connected with those lights form part of the general expenditure of that Government. The Federal Government, therefore, has a right to determine whether it shall reimburse itself for this outlay by levying light dues upon shipping, or whether on the whole it may not be more for the advantage of the United States, and more conducive to the commercial prosperity of the nation, that this charge should be borne by the public revenue, and that the commerce of the Union should be freed from any burden in the shape of light dues upon vessels frequenting the ports of the Union. The Government of the United States having power to decide this question, has determined, wisely, as her Majesty's Government think, as well as liberally, to free the commerce of the Union from any burden on this account, and to defray out of the national revenue the actual cost of erecting and maintaining the coast lights.

If the coast-lights of the United Kingdom had been established upon the same principle, and if they had been erected and were maintained at the public expense, and if they were managed and administered by a department of the State, it is possible that her Majesty's Government might think that it would be best for the general interests of the nation, that the system of the United States in regard to these matters, should be adopted in this country, and that the commerce of the United Kingdom should be relieved from the burden of light dues.

But the British Government has not the power to deal with this matter as it pleases. The various lights which are established around the coast of the United Kingdom have been erected and are maintained by various corporate bodies; and those corporate bodies are entitled, by patents and by acts of Parliament, to levy certain dues upon shipping, in order to raise the necessary income for paying interest on the capital laid out in the construction of the lights, and for providing the means requisite for defraying the expense of maintaining those lights.

Her Majesty's Government have no right or power to order these corporate bodies to abstain from levying these dues, and these dues could not be made to cease unless Parliament was to vote such sums as would be necessary to buy up for the public the interest which the private parties concerned have in these lights; nor unless Parliament were at the same time to authorize the Government to abolish light dues for the future, and were to charge upon the public revenue the expense of maintaining the lights.

The expediency of adopting such a course has, indeed, from time to time been suggested, but the question has not hitherto been considered with a view to any practical decision.

Her Majesty's Government, however, cannot admit that the difference which exists between the system which prevails in the United States, and that which subsists in Great Britain, in regard to coast-lights, has the effect of infringing upon that principle of commercial reciprocity between

Great Britain and the United States which forms the basis of the treaty of 1815. It is no part of the engagements of that treaty, that the internal system and local arrangements of the two countries upon commercial matters shall be the same. But the principle distinctly laid down in the second paragraph of the first article of the treaty of 1815 is, that the vessels of each country shall, in the ports of the other, be treated in regard to duties and charges in the same manner and on the same footing as national vessels; and this stipulation is strictly observed in regard to the light dues which are levied upon American vessels in British ports, for no other or higher light dues are levied in those ports upon American vessels than are levied in those ports upon vessels belonging to the United Kingdom.

But if the British light dues cannot be deemed to be any infringement of the principle of reciprocity which forms the basis of the treaty of 1815, neither can they be considered as in degree conflicting with the liberal principle upon which the present Navigation Law of Great Britain is founded. For that Navigation Law relates to the admission of foreign ships into British ports with certain goods on board, and coming from certain voyages, which goods and voyages would, before the passing of that law, have involved an exclusion from a British port, but the law has no reference to light dues or harbor dues, nor does it make any mention of such matters, and it cannot, therefore, be appealed to as requiring for its complete execution that any change should be made in such matters.

Her Majesty's Government are quite ready to discuss with the Government of the United States any question which may arise in regard to any supposed incompleteness of the mutual application of that principle of reciprocity in matters of navigation which is contained in the act 12 and 13 Vict., cap. 29; but willing and desirous as they are to carry out the provisions of that act to the fullest extent with respect to all countries which are disposed, as the United States have declared themselves to be, to pursue a similar course, yet her Majesty's Government cannot admit the force of arguments founded upon a constructive application of that law to matters which are wholly beyond the range of its enactments. The undersigned, &c. (Signed) PALMERSTON.

(No. 3.)

MR. LAWRENCE TO VISCOUNT PALMERSTON.

United States Legation, 138, }
Piccadilly, Feb. 12, 1851. }

The undersigned, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of America, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note of Viscount Palmerston, her Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, of the 6th inst., in reply to the former note of the undersigned to Lord Palmerston, on the subject of the imposition of light dues on the tonnage of the United States within the ports of the United Kingdom, and will not fail to transmit a copy to his Government by the earliest opportunity.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to correct an error into which her Majesty's Government seems to have fallen with reference to the request made by the undersigned, on behalf of the Government of the United States on the subject.

The Government of the United States is not unaware of the difference between the system on which coast lights are maintained in the United States, and the system on which such lights are maintained in the United Kingdom. On the contrary, the undersigned alluded to that difference in the former communication he had the honor to make to Viscount Palmerston with reference to them. That fact does not, however, diminish the pressure of this tax upon the shipping of the United States. And while the undersigned disclaims all intention of discussing the particular mode by which the lights of the United Kingdom are maintained, he still cherishes the hope that there is nothing in that system to prevent the changes for which his Government have asked.

The Federal Government does not rest this request on the provisions of the convention of 1815. Lord Palmerston justly says, that "it is no part of the engagements of that treaty, that the internal system and local arrangements of the two countries upon commercial matters shall be the same."

Neither does it seek to view the present Navigation Law of the United Kingdom as liberating the commerce of the United States from this tax. Were that the case, there would have been no occasion to instruct the undersigned to make the communication of the 31st Dec. last.

The Federal Government rests this request solely on the fact that the commerce of Great Britain enjoys without charge, the lights, beacons, and buoys maintained by the United States on a coast several thousand miles in extent; while the commerce of the United States is heavily taxed for the support of similar lights, beacons, and buoys in the United Kingdom. In view of this fact it asks her Majesty's Government to meet the liberality of the United States with reciprocal liberality. And as an additional reason for granting a request, it points to the present commercial policy of the two nations, founded professedly on the principle of reciprocity; and it invites her Majesty's Government to extend the principle still farther, and treat the commerce of the United States as liberally as the United States treat the commerce of the United Kingdom.

The undersigned trusts that no question will arise in regard to any supposed incompleteness in the mutual application of that principle of reciprocity in matters of navigation contained in the act 12 and 13 Victoria, cap. 29, to render necessary the discussion for which Viscount Palmerston expresses the readiness of her Majesty's Government.

The undersigned has great pleasure in learning that the expediency of adopting such a course as that of the United States, has been from time to time suggested, and renews the expression of the hope that her Majesty's Government may devise some way to remove or to lighten this burden, which now falls so heavily on the commerce of the United States.

The undersigned, &c.

(Signed)

ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

(No. 4.)

VISCOUNT PALMERSTON TO MR. LAWRENCE.

Foreign Office, Feb. 14, 1851.

The undersigned, &c., has the honor to inform Mr. Lawrence, &c., that he has received and has referred to the proper department of her Majesty's Government, the note which Mr. Lawrence addressed to the undersigned on the 12th instant, relative to the light dues which are levied on American shipping in the ports of the United Kingdom. The undersigned, &c.

(Signed)

PALMERSTON.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR
REGARDING THE USE OF PUBLIC TIMBER BY
SETTLERS.

Department of the Interior, }
Washington, March 15, 1851. }

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 14th instant, which seems to have been written just on the eve of your departure from this city, at the close of the Session of Congress. For fear of misrepresenting the purport and general tone of that letter, I take the liberty of quoting it in full before I reply to it.

"On the late Menominee purchase in the State of Wisconsin there are now settled and residing some twenty thousand people. The Government has established there several post-offices. The State Government has organized within that district, or embracing it, several counties. These settlers are ready, willing, and anxious to purchase the land on which they reside; but it is not yet surveyed, and has not been brought into market. They were encouraged to make their settlements by the known and long-established policy of the Government, as regards pre-emption rights, hoping that, when the land should be surveyed, they would be treated as other settlers have always been treated, and allowed to acquire the title to their homes and improvements: being in meantime permitted to avail themselves of the usual privileges of the settler as regards timber, that they might live and improve their homes and farms. But what has been and is their astonishment to find that, after making their settlements or locations, it has suddenly become the practice, if not the policy, of the Government, to cut them off from and deprive them of all timber and lumber privileges; without which, not a house, not even a post-office for the Government, can be built, nor a fence made, or a bridge constructed; without which, in short, they cannot live upon, but must abandon the land, to the great inconvenience of themselves, detriment of the State, as well as the General Government. The marshal of the State—and we presume by direction from your Department—has been and is continually seizing every log and plank cut or manufactured by these settlers for the purpose of their improvements, and the improvement of the roads, bridges, &c. of

the country; and the settlers themselves are being harassed, perplexed, and annoyed by suits for taking timber for these purposes.

"Against all this, the undersigned, Senators from the State of Wisconsin, would, and do respectfully, yet earnestly and firmly *protest*, as being unnecessary, injurious, and oppressive. No class of agricultural settlers upon the public lands have been so treated for the last twenty years; and the undersigned are unwilling to remain silent while this unprecedented course is pursued towards their constituents. If it be the design of the Government to thwart or subvert all the beneficent ends of the pre-emption system, the undersigned desire to know it, and that the country may know it. But if not, then they would most respectfully ask that you order the marshal of Wisconsin to cease the annoyance and embarrassments complained of."

I feel that it is due to the Administration and to the country that your letter should have a prompt and, I trust, a satisfactory answer.

I beg leave to assure you that you have entirely misconceived the policy of the Government if you suppose that it has been dictated by any purpose to "thwart or subvert all the beneficent ends of the pre-emption system," or to harass, perplex, and annoy the settlers on the public domain in your State. No such purpose exists, and no instructions, either designed or tending to produce such results, have emanated from this Department. On the contrary, it has been the constant aim of the Administration to afford to the hardy pioneers every facility which can be given, consistently with the law, for the settlement and improvement of the country. With equal confidence I affirm that there has been no disposition on the part of the Executive to prevent actual settlers from using the timber on the public lands for the erection of public or private improvements. Its object, in all the instructions which have issued from this Department, has been merely to preserve it from spoliation and waste; and, I think, if you will take the trouble to inform yourselves accurately on the subject, you will find that its policy has been beneficial to the occupants, and adverse only to the interests of lumber-merchants and speculators.

Timber is essential to the permanent settlement of the country, and it is therefore a proper subject of protection by the Government.

There are two systems which may be pursued in regard to it: One is to preserve it for the benefit of the actual settlers, and to allow them to take from the lands which they propose permanently to occupy, so much as may be necessary for their own use or public improvements; but at the same time to prohibit speculators, having no interest in the country, and no design to make permanent settlements in it, from roaming through the national domain and stripping it of its timber. The other is to give full liberty to every greedy adventurer to cut and destroy wherever and to whatever extent he may think proper, and thereby to leave an insufficient supply for the actual settlers. The first has been the policy of the Administration. If any officer has acted otherwise than in accordance to it, he has acted not only without instructions, but contrary to the wishes of this Department. If I am to understand your letter as asking that this system shall be abandoned and the opposite one adopted, I am constrained to say the Department cannot accede to your wishes. But, to avoid all

misunderstandings on the subject in future by any officer of the Government, I will cause specific instructions to be issued to the marshal of Wisconsin to permit actual settlers to take a reasonable amount of timber for their own use or for public improvements, but to prosecute, with the utmost rigor, those who deplete on the public domain for the purposes of speculation.

I am, gentlemen, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

(Signed)

ALEX. H. H. STUART, Secretary.

HON. J. P. WALKER, and HENRY DODGE,
Senators from Wisconsin.

THE BOUNTY LAND LAW AND THE MEXICAN WAR.

Department of the Interior,
Pension Office, March 20, 1851. }

New questions having been presented in the execution of the Bounty Land Act of September 28, 1850, and some of the rules and regulations heretofore prescribed either misinterpreted or disregarded, the following instructions, approved by the Secretary of the Interior, are issued for the benefit of all persons interested:—

1. The act of February 11, 1847, having restricted land bounty for service in the Mexican war to the non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates of the regular army, the claims of commissioned officers in that service are for the first time recognized by the act of 28th of September, 1850. It was not the intention of that to bestow bounty land on the whole army of the United States wherever located, but only on those whose service was connected with, or had a direct reference to that war; nor can the act be properly construed to embrace the officers and employees attached to the War Department in Washington, their services not being of that kind which was contemplated. It is not necessary that officers should have been actually within the limits of Mexico, or on the borders thereof, provided they were actively engaged in the war, and directly connected with its operations.

2. In the war of 1812, troops were frequently called out by the State authority, and not immediately mustered in the service of the United States. If the federal government paid such troops from the time of their enrolment, and before they were actually mustered in the service of the United States, that payment is equivalent to a recognition of their service from the date of the enrolment. The time for which they were paid by the United States furnishes a convenient and practical standard for estimating the period of service.

3. The conflicts with the Creek Indians, which commenced about 5th of May, 1836, and ended 30th of September, 1837, are considered as embraced by the act of 1850; large bodies of troops having been mustered in the United States' service, and several engagements having occurred, attended by the loss of many lives in battle, within that period. The disturbances on the southwestern frontier in 1836; in the Cherokee country in 1836 and 1837; and the New-York disturbances in 1838 and 1839,

are not considered as embraced by the provisions of the act of September, 1850.

4. It has been settled that Indians who were regularly mustered into the service of the United States, and formed a component part of the line of the army, were entitled to the benefit of the act. In the case of the Cherokees, who have an organized government and a judicial system in operation, the affidavit in support of an application for land bounty must be made before one of their judges, whose official character shall be certified by their principal chief. The Creeks having no judicial officers, the United States' agent in that nation is authorized to administer the necessary oaths.

5. It has been heretofore stated that "teamsters and artificers were not entitled to land bounty;" but this is not to be so understood, if such teamsters or artificers belonged to the line of the army, and were regularly detailed for that particular kind of service.

6. Surgeons employed by a commanding officer, at a stipulated rate of compensation, but not commissioned or belonging to the line of the army, are not entitled to land bounty.

7. It has been decided by the Department that the substitute performing the military service, and not the employer, is entitled to the land bounty; but when the engagement is partly performed by both, each is entitled to his share, according to the period of service.

8. Where the declaration of the claimant on oath, supported by a regular and authentic discharge, is in conflict with the military rolls, the former as a general rule, will be preferred. And where the rolls are altogether silent as to the claimant, the positive testimony of officers and soldiers with whom he served, and whose names are found on the rolls, will be received as evidence.

9. The act of September, 1850, excludes all persons who have received, or are entitled to receive, land bounty under any act of Congress heretofore passed. In all applications hereafter presented, (reasonable time being allowed for these instructions to circulate,) it will be required that the claimant shall state in his declaration that he has not received nor is entitled to receive such bounty.

10. The Department has decided that widows are entitled to the land bounty of deceased soldiers, if they are widows at the passage of the act of September 28, 1850. This is the law in its general application. But the widow of an officer or soldier killed in battle is entitled to the maximum allowance of one hundred and sixty acres, without reference to the period of her husband's service; and, although a married woman at the passage of the act, if unmarried at the date of her application, her claim is valid.

11. The death of an officer or soldier may be proved by satisfactory evidence; and if such officer or soldier should die after the declaration filed at the Pension office, but before the issuing of the warrant, it shall be competent for the widow, or if there be no widow, for the minor children, to apply for the said warrant and receive the same, on filing the necessary proofs of title.

Considerable anxiety prevails in some quarters in regard to the execu-

tion of this law, and much impatience is manifested as to whether applications forwarded have been received, and when the warrants are likely to be issued. A few explanations will probably suffice. Up to the time when the present commissioner entered upon the discharge of his duties (the 1st December, 1850,) between thirty and forty thousand applications were received, but, as the force employed had been engaged upon other branches of the business, no special acknowledgment had been made to claimants. Early in December, a printed circular was prepared and dispatched by every mail, acknowledging the receipt of claims; but as it was impossible, for obvious reasons, that this circular should be forwarded to previous applicants, it was necessarily confined to the future.

Hundreds, without a knowledge of these facts, have been surprised that their own applications were neglected, when others, subsequently forwarded, have been acknowledged by mail. If those who sent their claims prior to the 10th of December will wait patiently, they will in due time be advised, either in the form of a warrant or by letter, assigning the reasons of suspension or rejection. Up to this period, the office, with all its force faithfully applied, has only been able to issue between seven and eight thousand warrants on declarations received in October and early in November. Some time, therefore, must elapse before the numerous claims which arrived in November and early in December can be finally acted on, or of which the claimants can be informed by the usual printed acknowledgment. Up to the present time, about one hundred thousand applications have been received, and every day's mail brings an increase, varying from five hundred to a thousand. The office is now issuing between a thousand and twelve hundred warrants a week; but more than eighteen months must elapse before the claims now on hand can be disposed of, or matured into the form of warrants. The number of applications having increased so far beyond what was anticipated, in order to satisfy the public demand, additional force was asked of Congress near the close of the late session, and the request would, doubtless, have been granted had it been made at an earlier period. If granted hereafter, the work will, of course, be accelerated, and the time for its completion shortened.

Singular misconceptions exist as to the time necessary to execute the law. The rule of the Department is, that each claim shall be acted on in turn, or in the order in which it is received; and this rule has been rigidly and impartially enforced.

It would be tedious and unnecessary to describe the process by which the claims are conducted from their first reception and acknowledgment to the final issuing of the warrants. In order to guard against error and imposition, they are carefully registered and classified, and subjected to separate examination in different hands, no advantage in any respect being gained by a hurried and ill-digested method of proceeding. With all these precautions errors will unavoidably occur, but means will also be employed to render them harmless.

All persons interested in the law, or desiring information in regard to it, are requested to address their communications directly to this office, to which they are referred if sent to any of the departments.

J. E. HEATH, Commissioner of Pensions.

PROCLAMATION OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE
U. S. REGARDING THE CUBAN INVASION.

Washington, April 25.

Whereas, There is reason to believe that a military expedition is to be fitted out in the United States, with the intention to invade the Island of Cuba, a colony of Spain, with which this country is at peace ;

And whereas it is believed that this expedition is instigated and set on foot by foreigners who dare to make our shores the scene of their guilty and hostile preparations against a friendly power, and seek by falsehood and misrepresentation to seduce our own citizens, and especially the young and inconsiderate, into their wicked schemes, an ungrateful return for the benefits conferred on them by this people in permitting them to make our country an asylum from oppression, and in flagrant abuse of the hospitality thus extended to them ;

And whereas such expeditions can only be regarded as adventures for plunder and robbery, and must meet the condemnation of the civilized world, whilst they are derogatory to the character of our country, and in violation of our laws, our statutes declaring that if any person shall within the territory of, or jurisdiction of the United States, begin or set on foot, or provide or prepare the means for any military expedition or enterprise, to be carried on from thence, against the territory and domain of any foreign Prince or State, or of any colony, district, or people, with whom the United States are at peace, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanor, and shall be fined not exceeding \$3000, and imprisoned not more than three years ;

Now, therefore, I have issued this my proclamation, warning all persons who shall connect themselves with any such enterprise or expedition, in violation of our laws and national obligations, that they will thereby subject themselves to the heavy penalties denounced against such offenders, and will forfeit their claim to the protection of this Government, or any interference in their behalf, no matter to what extremity they may be reduced in consequence of their illegal conduct ; and therefore I expect all good citizens, as they regard our national reputation, as they respect their own laws, and the laws of nations, as they value the blessings of peace and the welfare of their country, to discountenance and by all lawful means prevent any such enterprise ; and I call upon every officer of this Government, civil or military, to use all efforts in his power to arrest for trial and punishment every such offender against the laws of the country.

Given under my hand the 25th day of April, in the year of our Lord
• 1851.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

W. S. DERRICK, Acting Sec'y of State

AN ACT TO FOUND A MILITARY ASYLUM

For the Relief and Support of Invalid and Disabled Soldiers of the Army of the United States, passed at the Second Session of the 31st Congress.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all soldiers of the Army of the United States, and all soldiers who have been, or may hereafter be, of the Army of the United States, whether regulars or volunteers, and who have contributed, or may hereafter contribute, according to section seven of this act, to the support of the Military Asylum hereby created, shall, under the restrictions and provisions which follow, be members of the said Asylum, with all the rights annexed thereto.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That, for the good government and attainment of the objects proposed by the institution aforesaid, the General-in-Chief commanding the army, the Generals commanding the Eastern and Western geographical military divisions, the Quartermaster General, the Commissary General of Subsistence, the Paymaster General, the Surgeon General, and the Adjutant General, shall be, *ex officio*, Commissioners of the same, constituting a Board of Commissioners, a majority of whom shall have power to establish, from time to time, regulations for the general and internal direction of the institution, to be submitted to the Secretary of War for approval; and may do any other act or acts necessary for the government and interests of the same, as authorized herein.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the officers of the institution shall consist of a governor, a deputy-governor, and a secretary, for each separate site of the Asylum, the latter to be also treasurer; and the said officers shall be taken from the army, and appointed or removed, from time to time, as the interests of the institution may require, by the Secretary of War, on the recommendation of the Board of Commissioners.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the following persons, members of the Army Asylum, according to section one, shall be entitled to the rights and benefits herein conferred, and no others, viz.: every soldier of the Army of the United States who shall have served or may serve honestly and faithfully twenty years in the same, and every soldier and every discharged soldier, whether regular or volunteer, who shall have suffered by reason of disease or wounds incurred in the service and in the line of his duty, rendering him incapable of further military service, if such disability has not been occasioned by his own misconduct: *Provided,* That no deserter, mutineer, or habitual drunkard shall be received without such evidence of subsequent service, good conduct, and reformation of character, as the Commissioners shall deem sufficient to authorize his admission.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That any soldier admitted into this institution, for disability as aforesaid, and who shall recover his health, so as to fit him again for military service (he being under fifty years of age), shall be discharged: *Provided,* That any pensioner on account of

wounds or disability incurred in the military service, although he may not have contributed to the funds of the institution, shall be entitled to all the benefits herein provided, upon transferring his pension to said Asylum, for and during the period that he may voluntarily continue to receive such benefits.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the provisions of the foregoing sections shall not be extended to any soldier in the regular or volunteer service who shall have been convicted of felony, or other disgraceful or infamous crimes of a civil nature, since he shall have been admitted into the service of the United States.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That for the support of the said institution the following funds shall be set apart, and the same are hereby appropriated: Any unexpended balance of the appropriation made March second, eighteen hundred and forty-seven, now remaining in the Treasury, for the benefit of discharged soldiers disabled by wounds; the sum of one hundred and eighteen thousand seven hundred and ninety-one dollars and nineteen cents, levied by the Commanding General of the Army of the United States in Mexico, during the war with that republic, for the benefit of the soldiers of the United States Army, regulars and volunteers, engaged in that war, but taken possession of as funds of the United States and placed in the Treasury; all stoppages or fines adjudged against soldiers by sentence of courts-martial, over and above any amount that may be due for the reimbursement of Government, or of individuals; all forfeitures on account of desertion; all moneys, not exceeding two thirds of the balance on hand, of the hospital fund, and of the post fund of each military station, after deducting the necessary expenses of the year; and all moneys belonging to the estates of deceased soldiers, which now are, or may hereafter be, unclaimed for the period of three years subsequent to the death of said soldier or soldiers, to be repaid by the Commissioners of the institution, upon the demand of the heirs or legal representatives of the deceased: *And provided also*, That from the first day of the month next after the passage of this act, there shall be deducted from the pay of every non-commissioned officer, musician, artificer, and private of the Army of the United States, the sum of twenty-five cents per month, which sum so deducted, shall, by the pay department of the Army, be passed to the credit of the Commissioners of the Army Asylum, who are hereby also authorized to receive all donations of money or property, made by any person or persons for the benefit of the institution, and hold the same for its sole and exclusive use: *Provided*, That the deduction of twenty-five cents per month from the pay of non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers, and privates of regiments of volunteers, or other corps or regiments, raised for a limited period, or for a temporary purpose or purposes, shall only be made with their consent.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the Commissioners of this institution, by and with the approval of the President, be and the same are hereby authorized and required to procure for immediate use, at a suitable place or places, a site or sites for the Military Asylum, and if the necessary buildings cannot be procured with the site or sites, to have the same erected, having due regard to the health of the locations, facility of

access, to economy, and giving preference to such places as, with the most convenience and least cost, will accommodate the persons provided for in this act.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the Commissioners, with the approval of the Secretary of War, prepare the necessary rules and regulations for the government of said institution, and cause the same to be fitted and furnished for the immediate reception of those persons provided for in this act, and that the Secretary of War report upon the execution of this duty at the next session of Congress.

Approved March 3, 1851.

LIBERIA AND SLAVERY.

Refutation of the charge of Lieut. FORBES, of the British Navy.

AT a meeting of the Executive Committee of the AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY, at the rooms of said Society, on the 1st of May, 1851, the attention of the committee was called to a publication in the newspapers, from a work recently published by Lieut. FORBES, of the British Navy, entitled "Dahomey and the Dahomans," in which he states that "domestic slavery" exists in the Republic of Liberia; that the citizens of that Republic are largely engaged in the "buying and selling" of slaves; and that the Republic of Liberia "is, in reality, a new name and form for slavery in enslaved Africa." Whereupon the Rev. J. S. BACON, D.D., of the Executive Committee, and Dr. J. W. LUGENBEEL, Recording Secretary of the American Colonization Society, were appointed a committee to investigate the subject, and to report at the next meeting of the Committee.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee, held on the 12th of May, 1851, the Rev. Dr. BACON presented the following Report, which was unanimously adopted, and ordered to be published under the signatures of the Executive Committee:—

"The committee to whom was referred the consideration of certain statements which have recently appeared in the public prints respecting the existence of slavery in the Republic of Liberia, said statements purporting to be from a book lately written by Lieut. Forbes, of the British Navy, have attended to the duty assigned them, and beg leave to offer the following Report:—

"That from all the evidence which they have been able to gather from the abundant sources within their reach, from public and private documents; from the statements, both verbal and written, of persons of the highest standing for intelligence, honor, and truthfulness, who have visited or resided in Liberia; and from the personal observations of one of the committee, (Dr. Lugenebel,) who spent nearly six years in that country in an official capacity, prior to 1850, during which time he had the amplest opportunities for becoming fully acquainted with the condition of that Republic, and with the character and conduct of its citizens; they feel entire confidence in saying that the assertion of Lieut. Forbes that

slavery, or the buying and selling of slaves, exists in Liberia, is *utterly groundless*.

"Whether the statements which he has made on this subject originated in ignorance, or prejudice, or in a willingness, from interested motives, to depreciate the Government and people of Liberia in the estimation of the British public, it is not for the committee to determine; it is enough for them to be able to say, as they do from the fullest and most authentic information on the subject, that they are without the least foundation in truth.

"If any formal refutation of this unjust and illiberal charge were needed, the committee might refer to the fact, that all the slave factories or establishments which were formerly in full and successful operation within the territory now occupied by Liberia have been broken up and destroyed. Previous to the settlement of the colony at Cape Mesurado, the slave trade was extensively carried on in the immediate vicinity of the cape, and at numerous other points along the coast now embraced within the limits of the republic. At all of these places it has been utterly abolished: not a vestige of it remains. This has been done through the agency and by the efforts of the Liberians—in some instances by the force of arms at the hazard and expense of life, in others by the moral and social influence of the Liberian settlements in the neighborhood of the factories. It is true that in some few cases they have received important aid from the armed vessels on the coast, but the work has been mainly done by the Liberians themselves.

"One of the fundamental principles of their constitution as a colony—afterwards as a commonwealth, and subsequently as a republic—was, and now is, uncompromising hostility to the slave trade, both domestic and foreign. This they have always openly avowed; and the committee feel authorized to say, there is abundant evidence to show that they have, at all times and everywhere, carried out this principle to the fullest extent of their moral and physical power. Indeed, all the wars and skirmishes which they have had with the native tribes have arisen from their determination to maintain this policy at all hazards, and to exterminate the traffic in slaves from every part of the territory over which they could claim jurisdiction. And, in carrying out this determination, several of the citizens of Liberia have fallen, mortally wounded, in their contests with the natives; thus sealing with their blood their fidelity to this principle of their constitution.

"The committee would here remark, that, in breaking up these factories, many instances occurred in which considerable numbers of the miserable victims who had been destined for the slave ship and the horrors of the "middle passage," were rescued by the Liberian authorities and placed under the protection of the Government of Liberia. They were treated with great kindness and hospitality by the people, were supplied with provisions, and received every attention which their necessities required. Those of adult age were immediately admitted to the rights of citizens, so far as they were capable of exercising them, and the children were committed to the care of respectable persons, under the customary legal forms of apprenticeship, until they should arrive at a

suitable age for enjoying all the privileges of citizenship. Within four years from the time the colony was established, (in 1822,) more than two hundred of these captives were forcibly taken by the Liberians from the barracoons, near Monrovia, all of whom were liberated and placed where they could enjoy the blessings of freedom. Some of these are still living, and, with others of the same class, are occupying respectable positions in the Republic. Dr. Lugenbeel, while residing in Liberia, had a personal knowledge of numbers of this class of persons; all of whom were enjoying the same privileges with emigrants from the United States—a large proportion of them members of christian churches or scholars in the Sabbath or day schools. During his residence there, about sixty captives were taken from slave factories at different places within recently-purchased territory. One of these places was the famous New Cess, which had long been noted as one of the principal slave marts on the windward coast. With the aid generously afforded by the French war steamer *Espedon*, this establishment was taken by the Liberian forces and entirely broken up. All the property belonging to the traders, who had prepared for the most determined resistance, was destroyed, and forty slaves recaptured and set at liberty.

“In forming treaties with the native tribes, the Liberian authorities have uniformly required a solemn written stipulation, prohibiting the parties from engaging in the slave trade, in any form, or under any circumstances whatever. More than forty such treaties have been made; and in this way many of the tribes in the interior, who were formerly engaged in it, have been induced to abandon the trade altogether.

“The groundless as well as the reckless character of the charge made by Lieut. Forbes will be apparent from a reference to the existing constitution and laws of the Republic of Liberia. The fourth section of the first article of the constitution reads thus: ‘There shall be no slavery within this republic. Nor shall any citizen of this republic, or any person resident therein, deal in slaves, either within or without this republic, directly or indirectly.’ And at the first session of the Legislature, after the adoption of the constitution, an act was passed declaring the slave trade equivalent to *piracy*, and providing that any person who shall engage in ‘building, fitting out, equipping, loading, or otherwise preparing or sending away any vessel, knowing or intending that she shall be employed in such trade, or any way aiding or abetting therein, shall be deemed guilty of piracy, and shall suffer such pains and penalties as by law may be attached to the crime of piracy.’ The same act further provides that ‘no citizen of Liberia, or other person resident within the jurisdiction of the same, shall be permitted to act as agent, or enter into the employ or service of any person or persons engaged in the slave trade, or any person in the remotest degree connected with them, under the penalty of indictment and being twelve months bound to hard labor in irons, or fined in the sum of not less than five hundred dollars.’

“Surely, in the face of such constitutional prohibitions and such penal laws, the Liberians must be possessed of uncommon hardihood to attempt to engage in the traffic, even if they had an inclination to do so, which the committee feel the fullest confidence is not the fact; but, on the con-

trary, they are assured, from the most reliable sources, that such is the public sentiment universally prevailing among the citizens of the republic, that the laws would be executed with rigor, wherever the crime was known to exist.

"The committee might protract this report by introducing testimony to almost any amount, both oral and written, from persons of the highest respectability, and of the amplest means for obtaining correct information, from having repeatedly visited or resided in Liberia, to establish the fact that the citizens of that Republic are not only not engaged, either directly or indirectly, in the foreign slave trade, but that 'domestic slavery,' or 'the buying and selling' of slaves among themselves, or for their own use, does not exist in Liberia; but they do not deem it necessary. They will content themselves with only two or three quotations; and, as this redoubtable charge came from across the water, they will confine their selections to officers of the British Navy, and those of higher rank and of far better opportunities for obtaining correct information than Lieut. Forbes, who, as the committee are credibly informed, *was never at Monrovia*.

"The first is from Capt. Irving. In a letter to Dr. Hodgkin, of London, dated August 3, 1840, he says: 'You ask me if they [the Liberians] aid in the slave trade? I assure you, no; and I am sure the colonists would feel themselves much hurt should they know such a question could possibly arise in England. In my opinion, it is the best and safest plan for the extinction of the slave trade and the civilization of Africa; for it is a well-known fact that wherever their flag flies it is an eyesore to the slave-dealers.' The testimony of Captain Herbert is as follows: 'With regard to the present state of slave-taking in the colony of Liberia, I have never known one instance of a slave being owned or disposed of by a colonist. On the contrary, I have known them to render great facility to our cruisers there in taking vessels engaged in that nefarious traffic.' Capt. Dunlop, who had abundant opportunities for becoming acquainted with Liberia during the years 1848, '49, and '50, says: 'I am perfectly satisfied no such thing as domestic slavery exists in any shape among the citizens of the Republic.' The last which the committee propose to introduce is from Commodore Sir Charles Hotham, Commander-in-Chief of her Britannic Majesty's squadron on the western coast of Africa, than whom the British public certainly could ask no higher authority. In a letter to the Secretary of the Admiralty, dated April 7, 1847, and published in the Parliamentary Returns, he says: 'On perusing the correspondence of my predecessors, I found a great difference of opinion existing as to the views and objects of the settlers; some even accusing the Governor of lending himself to the slave trade. After discussing the whole subject with officers and others best qualified to judge on the matter, I not only satisfied my own mind that there is no reasonable cause for such a suspicion, but further, that this establishment merits all the support we can give it; for it is only through their means that we can hope to improve the African race.'

"Subsequently, in 1849, the same officer gave his testimony before the House of Lords, in the following language: 'There is no necessity for

the squadron watching the coast between Sierra Leone and Cape Palmas, as the Liberian territory intervenes, and *there the slave-trade has been extinguished.*'"

ELISHA WHITTLESEY,

HARVEY LINDSLEY,

A. O. DAYTON,

WILLIAM GUNTON,

MATTHEW ST. C. CLARKE,

JOSEPH A. BRADLEY,

J. S. BACON,

Executive Com. of the American Colonization Society.

THE WHALE-FISHERY.

OFFICIAL.

National Observatory, }
Washington, April 16, 1851. }

Sir—I have the honor to inclose for your official action the accompanying "Notice to Whalemén," which is derived from the investigations that have been carried on at this office with regard to the migratory habits and places of resort of the whale—sperm and right.

I have reason to believe that the right whale of the southern hemisphere is quite a different animal from that of the northern; that the two are separated by (to them) an impassable barrier. I have also reason to suspect, from results that have been elicited in the course of these investigations, that the same whale which is taken in Behring's Straits is taken in Baffin's Bay also; and if this be so, these investigations prove beyond question that this animal cannot pass from the one region to the other, except through the Arctic ocean; and hence we are entitled to infer that there is, at times, at least, an open water communication between these Straits and Bay; in other words, that there is a northwest passage.

This interesting piece of circumstantial evidence in favor of a passage there, was called to the notice of Lieut. De Haven, when he left this place to take command of the expedition in search of Sir John Franklin and his companions. So much was that enterprising officer impressed with the importance of this suggestion, and the considerations growing out of it, that he expressed the intention, after reaching the Arctic sea, to observe closely the habits of the whale, and should these fish be observed to take a westwardly course, to use them as pilots by the way.

The wind and current charts give me reason to conjecture that the whalemén who attempt to cruise in high southern latitudes, will find it a region of heavy weather, for though our researches have not yet been extended to that quarter, the results attained with regard to the trade-winds indicate that in the general system of atmospherical circulation the prevailing winds are less liable to interruption, and that the general system of circulation is more active in the southern than in the northern hemisphere; and therefore it may be suggested, by way of precaution, that none but staunch, well-fitted, and found vessels should undertake the high southern cruise.

Respectfully, &c.

(Signed)

M. F. MAURY, Lieut. U. S. N.

Com. L. Warrington, Chief of Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography.

NOTICE TO WHALEMEN.

Captain Daniel McKenzie, of New Bedford, and George Manning, of New York, have been engaged for a year in procuring for this office information from whalers and others concerning navigation and its industrial pursuits of the sea.

The log-books containing this information have been used here by Lieutenants Herndon, Leigh, and Fleming, of the Navy, in making a chart to show when and where our whalers have searched for whales; when and where they have found them; with what abundance; and whether in schools or alone.

This chart divides the ocean into districts of 5 deg. latitude by 5 deg. longitude—perpendicularly through each of which districts are twelve columns for the twelve months; and horizontally through each of which districts are three lines; one to show the number of days that have been spent in each month in every district; and the two others to show the number of days in which whales, sperm or right, have been seen.

Thus: (Extract from the whale-chart.)

85° W.	A.				80° W.	
	Dec....	Jan....	Feb....	Mar....	April N	May... 90
5° N.—Days of search	124	11	2	7	72	90
No. of days sperm	0	0	0	0	0	0
Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0
Equator.						
Days of search	84	67	102	179	138	97
No. of days sperm	25	0	0	0	25	13
Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0
50° S.—Days of search	148	96	39	54	25	5
No. of days sperm	5	6	12	17	7	3
10° S.—Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0
85° W.	A.—Continued.				80° W.	
	June...	July...	Aug...	Sept.	Oct....	Nov... 94
5° N.—Days of search	155	148	175	138	108	94
No. of days sperm	0	0	0	0	0	0
Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0
Equator.						
Days of search	157	173	181	167	118	75
No. days sperm	30	35	40	45	40	6
Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0
5° S.—Days of search	8	0	26	116	222	255
No. of days sperm	26	21	11	14	3	10
10° S.—Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	0

80° W.	B.				75° W.	
	Dec....	Jan....	Feb....	Mar....	April	May...
40° S.—Days of search	148	96	39	54	25	5
No. of days sperm	2	3	0	16	2	0
Whales seen right	27	7	1	0	2	0
45° S.—Days of search	48	58	16	8	3	0
No. of days sperm	5	0	3	0	0	0
50° S.—Whales seen right	5	1	0	0	0	0

80° W.	B.—Continued.				75° W.	
	June..	July..	Aug..	Sept..	Oct....	Nov....
40° S.—Days of search	8	0	26	116	222	255
No. of days sperm	0	0	7	41	76	105
Whales seen right	0	0	7	41	76	109
45° S.—Days of search	6	0	0	5	4	22
No. of days sperm	0	0	0	0	0	1
50° S.—Whales seen right	0	0	0	0	0	10

The above is an extract from the chart, which, not being ready for publication, nevertheless affords information that I have thought might prove of some value to the great national interests which attach to the American whaling business.

It will appear from the above sample, that I have examined the log-books of whalers, who, altogether, have spent 1,124 days in the district (N.) between the equator and 5 deg. N., 80 deg. and 85 deg. W., without ever having seen a whale, either sperm or right, within it; whereas, in the district (M.) that joins it on the south, sperm whales have been seen in every month of the year, except January, February, and March; and right whales never; and it appears that the district (P.) which joins this one immediately on the south, is frequented by the sperm whale all the year round, but never by the right.

If the information afforded by the great number of vessels, whose logs have chanced to be examined for these districts, be a fair sample of what the whole would show, as it is supposed to be, then it would appear altogether useless to look here for right whales; or in the first-mentioned district (N.) either for right or sperm.

In the sample marked B., off the west coast of South America, between 40 deg. and 50 deg. S., 75 deg. and 80 deg. W., it appears that the upper district (Q.) is not much frequented by the whalers in May, June, and July, nor by the whales in January, February, and March, except sperm, which are most abundant in March, April, and August. Whether it be a place of much resort for either kind in May, June, and July, we have not found log-books enough to show.

It is almost of as much importance for whalers to know where whales

are not to be found, as to know where they are ; for this is a case in which negative information is almost as valuable as that which is positive.

I have, therefore, selected from the whale-chart those districts of the ocean in which most whales have been found in former years ; whether they have changed their places of resort, my information does not enable me to say.

But, according to the chart, which is constructed for the whole ocean, in the manner already explained, these are places in which most whales have been found, and which it may be supposed, now afford the best whaling grounds :

SPERM WHALING GROUND—ABOUT THE EQUATOR.

<i>Months.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i>	<i>Longitude.</i>
May to Nov., inclusive	0° to 05° S.	80° to 75° W.
April to Dec. “	0 to 05 S.	85 to 80 W.
Dec. to July “	0 to 10 S.	80 to 85 W.
Dec. to March “	0 to 05 S.	90 to 95 W.
February	0 to 05 S.	125 to 120 W.
All the year	0 to 10 S.	170 to 180 E.
All the year	5 to 10 S.	85 to 80 W.
All the year	5 to 10 S.	95 to 90 W.
All the year	5 to 15 S.	110 to 100 W.
Aug. to Sept., inclusive	5 to 10 S.	125 to 110 W.
Nov. to March	5 to 10 S.	120 to 115 W.
Dec. to April	5 to 10 S.	125 to 120 W.
Jan. to June	5 to 10 S.	130 to 125 W.
Feb. to June	5 to 10 S.	135 to 130 W.
January	5 to 10 S.	145 to 140 W.
Dec. to Jan.	5 to 10 S.	155 to 150 W.
March and May	5 to 10 S.	160 to 155 W.
Dec., Jan., Mar., June, Nov.	5 to 10 S.	175 to 170 W.
Dec., Jan. and Feb.	10 to 20 S.	80 to 75 W.
July to Nov., inclusive	10 to 15 S.	85 to 80 W.
July to February	10 to 15 S.	90 to 85 W.
Nov. to June	15 to 20 S.	85 to 80 W.

NORTH PACIFIC.

May, June, July	20° to 25° N.	140° to 145° E.
May to Aug., inclusive	20 to 25 N.	170 to 165 E.
April to Oct. “	20 to 30 N.	145 to 170 W.
July to Aug. “	25 to 30 N.	140 to 145 E.
June to Oct. “	25 to 30 N.	150 to 175 W.

RIGHT WHALING GROUND—SOUTH PACIFIC.

Jan., Feb., March	20° to 50° S.	45° to 50° E.
May, June, July	25 to 30 S.	35 to 40 E.
Sept., Oct., Nov., Dec.	30 to 40 S.	55 to 60 E.
Oct., Nov., Dec.	30 to 40 S.	60 to 65 E.

<i>Months.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i>	<i>Longitude.</i>
Oct., Nov., Dec.	30° to 40° S.	65° to 80° E.
Dec. and Jan.	35 to 45 S.	90 to 95 E.
July to Nov. inclusive	35 to 40 S.	115 to 120 E.
Nov. and Dec.	35 to 45 S.	120 to 130 E.
January	45 to 50 S.	160 to 170 E.
Dec., Jan., Feb., March, April	40 to 50 S.	170 E. 175 W.
Sept. to May, inclusive	30 to 45 S.	85 E. 75 W.
Aug. to Dec., “	20 to 40 S.	175 E. 165 W.
Nov., Dec., Jan.	30 to 50 S.	165 E. 150 W.

NORTH PACIFIC.

April and May	40° to 45° N.	145° to 150° E.
July to October, inclusive	45 to 50 N.	145 to 150 E.
April and May	40 to 50 N.	150 to 155 E.
May to Sept., inclusive	45 to 55 N.	155 to 165 E.
May to Sept.	45 to 55 N.	165 to 170 E.
May to Sept.	50 to 55 N.	160 W. 165 W.
May to Sept.	55 to 60 N.	115 to 130 W.

SOUTH ATLANTIC.*

Aug. to Dec., inclusive	35° to 40° S.	25° to 20° W.
Aug. to Dec., “	35 to 40 S.	20 to 05 W.
Sept. to Dec.	35 to 40 S.	05 W. 10 E.

As to whether the right whales are to be found in the high northern latitudes in our winter, or in high southern latitudes in our summer, when the whalers do not visit such latitudes, of course the chart does not show. Thus, between 50 deg. and 60 deg. N., 130 deg. and 155 deg. W., we only know that whales are abundant from May to September, inclusive. We know not as to the other months, because the night and cold then drive the whalers from this part of the ocean, and we cannot say anything as to the numbers in which the fish resort there then. The charts are, therefore, silent on the subject.

It is the same at the south, in its seasons; that is, when it is winter there, the whalers abandon the high latitudes, and seek their game in more genial climates.

But, seeing the abundance of whales in the Greenland and Arctic seas in our summer season, and seeing that they have not been sought for in similar latitudes south, I invite the attention of whalers to the subject of southern whaling in south summer time.

Below the parallel of 50 deg. S., indeed, with here and there an exception, I might say that, below the parallel of 48 deg. S., the whole chart is a blank; consequently few vessels go beyond that parallel. The indications to the chart are that, somewhere to the south of these parallels, and between these meridians as given below, whales are probably to be found in considerable numbers, if not in greater quantities, viz:—

* And in Behring's Straits.

Below	40° S.	from	25° W.	to	10° E.	A.
"	50 S.	"	45 E.	to	60 E.	B.
"	45 S.	"	120 E.	to	140 E.	C.*
"	50 S.	"	160 E.	to	150 W.	D.

In view of all the information before me, I would suggest the following as a very inviting route or cruise for a vessel that finds herself on the whaling ground of the South Atlantic in our fall months:—

She can cruise in the region A, of the last mentioned table; and from that, but still keeping well down to the south, pass rapidly on, unless she finds whales by the way, to the region B.

A week or two here will satisfy her as to the prospect for whales.

Entering the region C, more time might be spent in it, crossing different parallels, taking care to keep well to the south.

After having cruised and tried sufficiently in region C, the favorite region, the vessel may then "crack on" for region D, and, when this region is explored, the season at the south will probably be over.

The N.W. are the prevailing winds of these latitudes; and, therefore, the programme of this route would be easy.

Ending the search for right whales at the south, and leaving the region D for the equatorial cruising grounds, and entering them between 175° E. and 175° W., the route westward and between 5° S. and 10° S., will be through the best sperm whale grounds. These grounds commence between the meridians of 180° and 170° W., after crossing the parallel of 35° S., for just here sperm whales resort in great numbers.

Continue N., between these meridians, until you cross 10° S.

From 170° E. to 165° W., between the parallels of 5° and 10° S., is capital sperm ground.

The vessel, therefore, reaching these grounds between the meridians of 170° and 180° W., may tarry in them, tending westward, as long as she has luck, taking care not to look north of the line here for whales, for they are not to be found, except as stragglers.

After crossing these grounds, which reach west as far as 170° E., and east to America, she should "carry on," without stopping to look for whales, until she crosses 20° N., between 165° W. and 175° E., which is again fine sperm ground.

After passing west of 175° E., she will find good sperm ground between the parallels of 20° and 30° N. as far as 140° E.

Passing from these grounds, excellent right whale fishing will be found above the parallels of

50° N.	between	135° W.	and	165° W.,
45° N.	"	155° E.	"	175° E.,
35° N.	"	145° E.	"	155° E.,

and up through into Behrings Straits. Upon all these last mentioned right whale grounds there is good fishing from May to September, inclusive.

I have not, as yet, found the log-book of any whaler that has cruised

* This region is particularly attractive.

here at any other season of the year, and therefore my information as to the rest of the year is negative.

But there is reason afforded by the chart for the opinion that the right whales of the North Pacific never come to the south of the parallels named, and that therefore, as a general rule, these fish remain somewhere to the north of the parallel of 35° all the year.

If this indication of the chart be correct, and I see no reason to question it, it appears that this animal must have supplies of food all the year round, above 35° N.

I have reason to believe that the temperature of the sea has much to do with the whale, or the growth of its food; that the sperm whale delights in warm water, and the right whale in cold; and those whalers who are co-operating with me in collecting materials for the "Wind and Current Charts"—and the whale chart belongs to the series—will, therefore, understand and appreciate the importance of keeping a daily record as to the temperature of air and water.

There is another point also to which I would call their attention, because, by regarding it, it may prove of value to these researches and to them, and that point is deep sea soundings.

It is said that the sperm whale goes to the bottom of the sea for its food. What is the greatest depth to which it can go for this purpose, and are its places of resort confined to parts of the ocean that come within these depths?

Now, if owners would provide their ships each with a few thousand fathoms of twine, and some scraps of old iron or lead to serve as sounding weights, I am sure that the whalers, from the great philosophical interest which many of them manifest with regard to my researches, would, in calms, get deep sea soundings for me.

If the ocean were very deep, and the time could not be spared to haul up the line, it might, the length out being known by what is left, be cut; and as the line and sinker would cost but little, the expense to each ship would be but a trifle.

I take this occasion to say, because some of the whalers have supposed it unnecessary to continue the abstract when in sight of land, that it is important to have a complete abstract for every day they are at sea, that we may know whether they find fish or not, how plentiful, the force and direction of winds and currents, temperature of the air and water; and glean information as to all other phenomena, which they are requested in the abstract log to note.

M. F. MAURY, *Lieutenant U. S. Navy.*

National Observatory,
Washington, D. C., April 16, 1851.

THE PARDONING POWER AND ITS ABUSES.

BY PROFESSOR LIEBER OF SOUTH CAROLINA COLLEGE.

(From the Annual Report of the Prison Association of the State of New York.)

THE pardoning privilege consists in the authority partially or wholly to remit the penalty which, in the due and regular course of justice, has been inflicted for some offence. A pardon is always an act of frustrating that common justice which has been established by law as the best means of protection; a nullification of legal justice. It is the only power in modern politics in which the supremacy of the law is acknowledged as the primary condition of liberty that can be compared in any degree to the veto of the ancient tribune.* It is an irregular power, depending upon irresponsible individual will. We ought, therefore, clearly to be convinced of its necessity; and if this can be proved, we ought to inquire whether so extraordinary a power must not be guarded by proper limitations, especially if it should be found that it is liable to be seriously and even alarmingly abused.

In order to understand more fully the whole subject, it will not be amiss if we endeavor to obtain a view of the origin of this power, and to see why it is that everywhere we find it as an attribute of the chief executive power; whether this fact must be attributed to any inherent characteristics, or to incidental circumstances.

When all government is yet mixed up with the family relations, and the individual views of the ruler alone prevail, he pardons, as a matter of course, whenever he sees proper and feels impelled so to do; but developed despotism over extensive States takes a different view. Fear of insecurity, and suspicion of disobedience to the commands of the despot, lead the ruler to fence himself in with a strict prohibition of applications for pardon. That which a wise people does for virtuous purposes by a constitu-

* An inaccuracy of terms has in the case of the veto power created much confusion. The ancient tribune had the privilege of vetoing, and a so-called vetoing power being ascribed to the chief magistrate of modern constitutional States, people are apt to confound the two, and attack or defend them on common grounds. Yet the two have nothing in common. The Roman tribune had a real veto. He could prohibit an entire law, or a single operation of it; he could stop the building of a public fabric, or veto an officer from doing his duty, or a general from leaving Rome for the army. But the modern veto has nothing to do with the law once passed; it amounts to nothing more than the withholding of one necessary ingredient to pass a bill into a law. In Governments where the crown has the concurrent or sole initiative, either house, whose consent is necessary in order to make a law, might be said to have the veto power against the crown with the same propriety with which we call the power, in our President, of withholding his approval a vetoing power. The President can never interrupt the operation of a law once being a law. In the case of pardoning, however, the power actually amounts to a tribunal veto. There the executive, or whoever may possess the pardoning privilege, actually stops the ordinary operation of the law. A man has been laboriously tried and sentenced according to the course, minutely laid down by the law, and another power steps in, not according to a prescribed course or process of law, but by a pure privilege left to his own individual judgment, and says: I prohibit; and the due and regular course of law is interrupted accordingly. This is vetoing power.

tion, namely, the establishing in calm times of rules of action for impassioned periods, distrusting its own power of resisting undue impulses, and thus limiting its power, the despot does from fear of his own weakness, and therefore limits his own absolute power that he may not be entrapped into a pardon of disobedience. Chardin* tells us that in his time it was, in Persia, highly penal to sue for pardon for one's self or for another person; the same was a capital offence under the Roman Emperors—at least under all the tyrants among them, who form the great majority of the fearful list. Still it is clear that the last and highest power, the real sovereign (not only the supreme power) must include the power of pardoning; and as in Athens the assembled people had the right of remitting penalties,† so does the civil law acknowledge the privilege in the emperor who was supposed to be the sovereign, and acknowledged as the source of all law. Christianity confirmed all these views. The mercy of the Deity is one of its chief dogmas; mercy, therefore, came also to be considered as one of the choicest attributes of the ruler, who on the one hand was held to be the vicegerent of God, and on the other the sovereign source of law and justice; nor can it be denied that, in times when laws were yet in a very disordered state, the attribute of mercy in the ruler, and the right of pardoning flowing from it, was of great importance, and, upon the whole, probably of great benefit to the people. The fact that the pardoning power necessarily originated with the sovereign power, and that the rulers were considered the sovereigns, is the reason why, when jurists came to treat of the subject, they invariably presented it as an attribute indelibly inhering in the crown. The monarch alone was considered the indisputable dispenser of pardon; and this again is the historical reason why we have always granted the pardoning privilege to the chief executive, because he stands, if any one visibly does, in the place of the monarch of other nations, forgetting that the monarch had the pardoning power not because he is the chief executive, but because he was considered the sovereign—the self-sufficient power from which all others flow; while with us the Governor or President has but a delegated power and limited sphere of action, which by no means implies that we must necessarily or naturally delegate, along with the executive power, also the pardoning authority.

Although the pardoning power has always existed, and has been abandoned by ultra despotism for the sake of despotism itself, yet the abuse to which it easily leads, and the apparent incongruity which it involves, have induced many men of deep reflection, in ancient as well as in modern times, to raise their voices against it: of whom we may mention Plato‡ and Cicero§ among the ancients, and Pastoret,|| Servin, Filangieri, and the benevolent Beccaria among the moderns. The latter, the pioneer of penal reform, and one of the benefactors of mankind, has the following remarkable passage:¶

“As punishments become more mild, clemency and pardon are less

* Voyage en Perse. London, 1686—1715. † Demosthenes against Timocrates.

‡ De Legibus, IX.

§ Cicero in Verrem, 7.

|| Des Lois pénales.

¶ Crimes and Punishments, chap. 46, on Pardons, English Translation, 1807.

necessary. Happy the nation in which they will be considered as dangerous ! Clemency, which has often been deemed a sufficient substitute for every other virtue in sovereigns, should be excluded in a perfect legislation where punishments are mild, and the proceedings in criminal cases regular and expeditious. This truth may seem cruel to those who live in countries where, from the absurdity of the laws and the severity of punishments, pardons and the clemency of the prince are necessary. It is, indeed, one of the noblest prerogatives of the throne ; but at the same time a tacit disapprobation of the laws. Clemency is a virtue which belongs to the legislator, and not to the executor of the laws ; a virtue which ought to shine in the code, and not in private judgment. To show mankind that crimes are sometimes pardoned, and that punishment is not a necessary consequence, is to nourish the flattering hope of impunity, is the cause of their considering every punishment inflicted as an act of injustice and oppression. The prince, in pardoning, gives up the public security in favor of an individual, and by ill-judged benevolence proclaims a public act of impunity. Let, then, the legislator be tender, indulgent, and humane."

Among the truths of this passage there are some errors, the exhibition of which will at once lead us to the consideration whether the pardoning power, having already been admitted as an extraordinary and super-legal one, be necessary at all in a well and liberally constituted Government, or ought to be suffered in a community which acknowledges the sovereignty of the law. Beccaria says that clemency should be excluded in a perfect legislation, and that pardon is a tacit disapprobation of the law. This is erroneous. No legislation can ever be perfect in the sense in which it is taken here, namely, operating in all cases, in the same manner toward exactly the same end, for which the legislator has enacted the law ; because the practical cases to which the laws apply are complex, and often involve conflicting laws ; because the legislator, though he were the wisest, is but a mortal with a finite mind, who cannot foresee every combination of cases ; because the changes of society, things, and relations necessarily change the effect produced by the same laws, and because the law-maker cannot otherwise than cast the rules of action which he prescribes in human language, which of itself is ever but an imperfect approximation to that which is to be expressed. Laws cannot, in the very nature of things, be made abstract mathematical rules ; and so long as we live on this earth, where we do not see "from face to face," where mind cannot commune with mind, except through signs which have their inherent imperfections, cases must frequently occur in which the strict and formal application of the law operates against essential justice, so that we should actually come to the conclusion, that, in a country in which the *sovereignty* of the laws is justly acknowledged, we stand in need of a conciliatory power to protect ourselves against a *tyranny* of the law, which would resemble the bed of Procrustes, and would sometimes sacrifice essential justice as a bleeding victim at the shrine of unconditional and inexorable law itself. It is to these cases, among others, that the adage of the jurists themselves applies : *Summum jus, summa injuria*. We take it then for granted on all hands, that, justice being the great end of all civil government, and law the means to obtain it, the pardoning power is necessary in order to protect

the citizen against the latter, whenever, in the peculiar combination of circumstances, it militates with the true end of the State, that is, with justice itself. But it is equally true that the supremacy of the law requires that the extraordinary power of pardoning be wielded in the spirit of justice, and not according to individual bias, personal weakness, arbitrary view, or interested consideration; a truth which is the more important in our country, because the same principles which make us bow before the law as our supreme earthly ruler, also bring the magistrate so near to the level of the citizen that he who is invested with the pardoning power is exposed to a variety of influences, individual and political, which have a powerful, and often, as practice shows, an irresistible effect, although there is no inherent connection between them and the cases to which the pardon is applied—influences, therefore, which in this sense are arbitrary or accidental. All arbitrariness, however, is odious to sterling freedom in general, and the arbitrary use of the pardoning power and its frequency produces the most disastrous consequences in particular.

It unsettles the general and firm reliance on the law, an abiding confidence in its supremacy, and a loyal love of justice.

It destroys the certainty of punishment, which is one of the most important and efficacious elements in the whole punitive scheme; and it increases the *hope* of impunity, already great, in the criminally disposed, according to the nature of man and the necessary deficiency even of the best contrived penal systems.

It endangers the community, since it is perfectly true what the prince of poets, in his great wisdom, has said, that

"Mercy is not itself, that oft looks so:
Pardon is still the nurse of second wo."

It interferes most effectually with the wise objects of reform which our penitentiary systems aim at; for all men, practically acquainted with their operation, are agreed that no reform ever fairly begins in a convict before he has not calmly made up his mind to submit to the punishment, and so long as a hope of pardon leads his thoughts from the prison cell to the anticipated enjoyment of undue enlargement—a phenomenon easily to be accounted for upon psychological grounds.

It induces large numbers of well-disposed persons, male and female, from a superficial feeling of pity, to meddle with cases of which they have no detailed knowledge, and with a subject the grave importance of which they have never considered.

It largely attracts to the community in which the pardoning power is known to be abused, criminals from foreign parts where such an abuse does not exist; it imports crime.

It makes every sentence, not pardoned, an unjust one; for in matters of state every act should be founded on right and equal justice.* No

* Lord Mansfield is reported justly to have remarked to George III., who wished to save the Rev. Dr. Dodd from the gallows, to which he had been sentenced for forgery: "If Dr. Dodd does not suffer the just sentence of the law the Perreaus may be said to have been murdered." Holliday's *Life of Lord Mansfield*, London, 1797, p. 149. The Perreaus were apothecaries of very high standing, but had been hanged for forgery, in spite of the most weighty petitions.

one; therefore, has the right, whatever his power may be, to extend a favor to one without extending it to all equally situated, and, consequently equally entitled to the favor. The doctrine of Dr. Paley of "assigning capital punishment to many kinds of offences, but inflicting it only upon a few examples of each kind," which he actually calls one of the "two methods of administering penal justice," amounts to revolting monstrosity if practically viewed, and to positive absurdity in a philosophical and scientific point of view.

It adds, with the very commonly annexed condition of expatriation, and flagrant abuse of saddling, in an unhuman, unchristian, and unstatesmanlike manner, neighboring communities with crime, to which the people, whose sacred and bounden duty it was to punish it, were too weak and negligent to mete out its proper reward.*

And it places an arbitrary power in the hands of a single individual, or several individuals, in States where all arbitrary power is disclaimed, and allows them by one irresponsible act to defeat the ends of toilsome, costly, and well devised justice and legislation, putting the very objects of civil government to nought.

We do not theorize on this subject. All the disastrous effects of the abuse of the pardoning power, whether inherent in the power itself, when unlimited by proper restrictions, or arising out of a state of things peculiar to ourselves, have shown themselves among us in an alarming degree, and are in many parts of the country on the increase.

For the proof of this evil state of things we appeal to every one in our whole country who has made penal matters the subject of earnest inquiry; we appeal to the fact that for a long series of years the official reports of persons connected with prisons and penitentiaries, and of legislative committees, have teemed with complaints of the mischievous effects of the pardoning power, we appeal to the daily papers near and far, and to recent occurrences in one of our most prominent States, where pardons have been granted to bloodstained criminals of the most dangerous, persevering, and resolute sort, without even the least indication of their reform, after a short time of imprisonment, which had already been substituted for capital punishment; we appeal to the statistics, whenever they have been collected, from official documents, on this melancholy subject; and, lastly, we appeal to the presentments of grand juries in several States of our Union, in which the frequency of pardons under some Governors had been called by the severe yet merited name of nuisance.

So long ago as the year 1832, Messrs. De Beaumont and De Tocqueville showed, in their work on the penitentiary system of the United States,† by documents and statistical tables, the frightful abuse of the pardoning power in the United States in general, and the additional abuse, naturally resulting from the circumstances, that pardon is more liberally extended to those convicts who are sentenced to a long period of imprisonment, or

* This unhallowed abuse has been raised into a law by Sir George Gray's Expatriation law, passed in 1847, according to which convicts who behave well shall be pardoned after the lapse of two thirds of the imprisonment to which they had been originally sentenced, *provided* they will leave the country.

† Translated by Francis Lieber, Philadelphia, 1833.

for life, than to less criminal persons. We refer especially to the 2d part of the 16th note of the Appendix, page 232 of the translation. We are aware that in some, perhaps in many States of the Union, the pardoning power has been used more sparingly since that time; but it will be observed that there is no security against a return to the former state of things; nor is the effect of pardoning, though rare, yet abused in a few glaring cases, which attract universal notice, less injurious; for instance, if the member of a wealthy or distinguished family is pardoned, although guilty of a well-proved heinous crime, or if men are pardoned on political grounds, although they have committed infamous and revolting offences. Such cases have a peculiar tendency to loosen the necessary bonds of a law-abiding and law-relying community, which has nothing else, and is proud of having nothing else, to rely upon but the law.

Many years ago Mr. M. Carey said, in his thoughts on Penitentiaries and Prisons: "The New York committee ascertained that there are men who make a regular trade of procuring pardons for convicts, by which they support themselves. They exert themselves to obtain signatures to recommendations to the Executive authority to extend pardon to them by whom they are employed. And in this iniquitous traffic they are generally successful, through the facility with which respectable citizens send their names, without any knowledge of the merits or demerits of the parties. Few men have the moral courage necessary to refuse their signatures, when applied to by persons apparently decent and respectable, and few Governors have the fortitude to refuse."

To this statement we have now to add the still more appalling fact, which we would pass over in silence if our duty permitted it, that but a short time ago the Governor of a large State—a State amongst the foremost in prison discipline—was openly and widely accused of having taken money for his pardons. We have it not in our power to state whether this be true or not; but it is obvious that a state of things which allows suspicions and charges so degrading and so ruinous to a healthy condition of public opinion ought not to be borne with. It shows that leaving the pardoning privilege, uncontrolled in any way, to a single individual, is contrary to a substantial government of law, and hostile to a sound commonwealth.*

A very interesting paper relating to the subject of pardon was furnished in the year 1846 by the Secretary of State of Massachusetts, and published by the House of Representatives of that Commonwealth. The paper is of itself of much interest to every penologist; but when we consider that Massachusetts justly ranks amongst the best governed States of our Union, its value is much enhanced; for we may fairly suppose that the abuse of the pardoning power exists in many of the other States in no less a degree. In many, indeed, we actually know it to exist in a far greater and more appalling degree.

From this document† we have arrived at the following result:—

* In some of the worst Governments, as those of Charles II., James II., and Louis XV., pardons were sold, but not by the pardoning ruler. It was the mistresses and courtiers who carried on the infamous traffic, though the monarchs knew about it.

† House of Representatives of Massachusetts, 1846, No. 63.

There were imprisoned in the State of Massachusetts, from the year 1807, inclusive to the month of February, 1847, in the State prisons, convicted, 3,850.

Of these were pardoned before the term of imprisonment expired 460. So that of the whole were pardoned 12 per cent. or every eighth convict.

The average time of remaining in prison, (of these 460,) compared to the time of their original sentence, amounted to 65 per cent. In other words, they remained in prison but two-thirds of the time of imprisonment imposed upon them by the law of the State.

Of the 460 pardoned convicts there had been originally sentenced to an imprisonment of ten years or more, the number of 49. And the time which these convicts had actually remained in prison, compared to the terms of their original conviction, amounts to 60 per cent.; so that a criminal sentenced to ten years or more had a better chance of having his imprisonment shortened than those sentenced to a period less than ten years, in the proportion of about six to seven; in other words, while the less guilty was suffering a week's imprisonment, the prisoners of the darkest dye suffered six days only.

There were committed for life by computation of sentence, and still further pardoned at a later period from 1815 to 1844, inclusive, seventy-five. The average time they actually remained in prison was a fraction over seven years. So that, if we take twenty-five years as the average time of a sentence of imprisonment for life, we find that they remained in prison but little over one fourth of the time which had been allotted to them, already, in consequence of a first pardon, twenty-five per cent.; or the executive substituted seven years' imprisonment for death decreed by law. There were altogether committed for life by commutation of sentence fifteen. And, as we have seen that five of these were further pardoned, we find that one third of the whole were pardoned thirty-three per cent. It does not appear how many criminals were sentenced to death, and what proportion, therefore, had their sentences commuted to imprisonment for life.

The abuse of pardoning in the State of Massachusetts has, however, much decreased during the latter part of the period through which the mentioned report extends; for, according to a table published in the able and instructive third report of the New-York Prison Association, (N. Y.) 1847, page 41 of the report of the prison discipline committee, we find that from 1835 to 1846, there was pardoned in Massachusetts one convict of 1,804, while our statement shows that in the period from 1807 to 1846 every eighth convict was pardoned.

We beg leave to copy the chief result of the table just mentioned.

Table showing the pardons in the following prisons in one or several years from 1845 to 1846.

Vermont	one convict pardoned of	5.87 convicts.
Maine	do.	20.74 "
New-Hampshire	do.	4.56 "
Connecticut	do.	36.50 "

Massachusetts	one convict pardoned of	18.04 convicts.
Virginia	do.	33.31 "
Maryland	do.	41.00 "
Sing Sing	do.	21.25 "
Auburn	do.	17.83 "
Eastern Penitentiary	do.	20.37 "
Western Penitentiary	do.	6.43 "
Mississippi	do.	10.81 "
Kentucky	do.	8.50 "
District of Columbia	do.	87.00 "
Ohio	do.	11.31 "
Rhode Island	do.	18.00 "

If we take the above list as a fair representation of the whole United States, we shall find that one convict of 26.33 is pardoned. But we fear that this would not be very correct; nor must it be believed that any average *number* fairly represents the average *mischief* of the abuse of pardoning. Although there be but very few convicts pardoned in a given community, yet incalculable mischief may be done by arbitrarily or wickedly pardoning a few prominent and deeply-stained criminals, as the average temperature of a place may turn out very fair at the end of a year, while, nevertheless, a few blasting night-frosts may have ruined the whole crop.

It ought to be kept in mind that, in all calculations of probability, averages must be taken with peculiar caution in all cycles of facts in which a peculiarly high or low state of things produces effects of its own, differing not only in degree but also in kind from the effects which result from the more ordinary state of things. In these cases averages indicate very partial truth only, or cannot be taken as an index of the desired truth at all. The effects of these maxima or minima are not distributive, and being effects of their own they cannot be counteracted by other facts in the opposite direction. This applies to moral as well as physical averages, and before we apply ourselves to averages we must distinctly know whether the elements we are going to use stand in the proper connection with the nature of the result at which we desire to arrive.*

The abuse then exists, and exists in an alarming degree. The question arises, how is it to be remedied?

* A few examples may illustrate the truth too often forgotten: No farmer can determine the fitness of a given climate for the culture of a certain plant from the mean heat of the summer or the mean cold of the winter, for the mean heat does not indicate whether the weather is uniform or violently changeable; the mean interest at which money may have been obtainable in the course of the year does not indicate the truth, unless we know that it has not been peculiarly low at some periods and extraordinarily high at others; the general criminality of a community cannot be calculated from the per centage of crime, unless we know that there has not been a peculiarly disturbing cause; for instance, one man who has murdered half a dozen of people in a comparatively small community; and the mischief produced by pardons cannot be calculated by the average per centage alone, if we do not know that among these pardons there were not some peculiarly arbitrary or peculiarly hostile to the ends of justice. A wholesale pardon may be warranted by the truest principles, and a single arbitrary pardon may shock the whole community.

In trying to answer this question we would preface that we are well aware that, unfortunately, the pardoning power is, in almost all States of our Confederacy, determined by their constitutions, and cannot be changed without a change of these fundamental instruments. The object of the present paper, however, is not to propose any political measure, and we shall treat the subject as a scientific one, and an open question, irrespective of what can or may be done in the different States in conformity with existing fundamental laws. It is necessary, before all, to know what is the most desirable object to be obtained. After this has been done, it will be proper for each party concerned to adopt that practical course which best meets its own peculiar circumstances, and to settle how near its own means allow of an approximation to the desirable end.

Many vague things have been asserted of the pardoning power by writers otherwise distinguished for soundness of thought, because they were unable to rid themselves of certain undefined views and feelings concerning princes and crowns. Some have maintained that the pardoning privilege can be justified only in the monarchy, because the monarch combines the character of the legislator and executive, while Montesquieu wishes to restrict the right to the constitutional monarchy alone, because he does not himself perform the judicial functions. All these opinions appear to us visionary and unsubstantial. There is nothing mysterious, nothing transcendental in the pardoning power. The simple question for us can be, Why ought it to exist? If it ought to exist, who ought to be vested with it? What are its abuses, and how may we be guarded against them?

We have already seen that certainly the pardoning power ought to exist:

That there is no inherent necessity that it ought to exist in the Executive, or in the Executive alone:

That a wide-spread abuse of the pardoning power exists, and has existed at various periods:

That the abuse of the pardoning power produces calamitous effects:

That the Executive in our country is so situated that, in the ordinary course of things, it cannot be expected of him that he will resist the abuse, at least that he will resist it in many cases:

And that the chief abuse of the pardoning power consists in the substitution of an arbitrary use of power or of subjective views and individual feelings, for high, broad justice, and the unwavering operation of the law, which ought to be freed from all arbitrariness.

We know, moreover, that all our constitutions, as well as the laws of England, actually restrict the pardoning power in some cases; for instance, regarding fines to be paid to private parties or impeachments; and in most of our States the Executive is not invested with the right of pardoning treason, which can only be done by the Legislature. In others, again, the Governor has no authority to pardon capital punishment before the end of the session of that Legislature which first meets after the sentence of death has been pronounced, and in other States he has only the power of respiting the capitally condemned criminal until the meeting of the Legislature. It is obvious that no specific reason has induced our

legislators to give the pardoning power to the Executive. It was rather left where they happened to find it, or they placed it by analogy, and not in consideration of any intrinsic reasons.*

If it be true that pardon ought to be granted only in cases in which essential justice demands it *against* the law, or for very specific and peculiar reasons; for instance, if a convict, sentenced to a short imprisonment, is so feeble in health, that, no proper hospital existing, the incidental consequences of imprisonment would be infinitely severer than the law intended the punishment to be,† (and is not this also a case of essential justice against the law?) or because strong suspicions of innocence have arisen after the trial, it is equally clear that pardon ought to be granted after due investigation only, and that this investigation ought to be ensured by law.

The pardoning power might be transferred from the Executive to the Legislature, or to an assembly of judges. We are emphatically averse to either measure. The Legislature is composed of members elected to represent a variety of interests and views, all of which ought to have a proportionate weight in the formation of laws; but neither the reasons why nor the objects for which legislators are elected have any connection with deciding upon a question of pardon. If the decision were left at once to the whole assembly, it would be impossible to give that degree of attentive examination to the details of each case which its nature requires, and a party feeling would frequently warp a decision which could

* A remarkable proof of this fact seems to have been afforded by the late Constituent Assembly of the State of New-York; for, so far as we are aware, there was no debate on the question whether the pardoning power ought to be left uncontrolled in the hands of the Executive. We can very well imagine that, after a discussion of this subject, a majority might have decided, erroneously in our opinion, that the pardoning privilege ought to remain where it was; but we cannot imagine that a large number of men could have possibly been from the beginning so unanimous upon so important a subject, that not even a discussion was elicited, had the pardoning been made a subject of any reflection at all. This is impossible in the nature of things. Men will differ in opinion upon almost any point, and would certainly have differed upon so weighty and delicate a subject, had their minds been directed to it.

† We certainly think that ill-health, threatening disastrous consequences, should form a ground of release in cases of comparatively short sentences, if no good prison hospital exists. But, even where no hospital exists, (which is undoubtedly a great deficiency,) much caution must be exercised. An experienced and highly-respectable prison physician in Massachusetts stated in his report, some years ago, that pardons on account of deficient health had a tendency to increase sickness in the prison, because many prisoners will seriously and perseveringly injure their health in the hope of obtaining thereby a pardon. A prison ought to have an hospital, and if in spite of a good hospital, the consciousness of being imprisoned has of itself any bad consequences for the imprisoned patient, it must be taken as one of the many incidental but unavoidable consequences of all imprisonment. There are more serious consequences than this, which we are, nevertheless, unable to separate from punishment. Punishment ought always to be individual, and to strike no one but the evil doer; yet there is hardly ever an individual punished whose sentence does not at the same time entail moral or physical suffering upon others. Men are decreed to constitute societies, with concentrated weal and woe, and human judges cannot punish without indirectly inflicting suffering upon those who are unconnected with the crime but connected with the criminal. If we were absolutely to follow out the first principle, that the offender alone should suffer, we could not punish a single convict.

be justified only on the ground of the highest and of essential justice. If the case were first given to a committee, (as we may imagine a standing committee of pardon), and the Legislature were regularly to follow the decision of the committee, the latter step is useless; if the Legislature, however, were not to follow implicitly this decision, we have the incongruities just indicated. As to the forming a board of pardon of judges alone, we think the case would be equally incongruous. The business of the judge, his duty, and his habit of thinking, is strictly to apply the law. He is a valuable magistrate only so long as he is a faithful organ of the established law; but, in the case of pardon, the object is neither to make nor to apply a law, but to defeat its operation in a given and peculiar case.

In order to constitute a proper authority to which the pardoning privilege can be safely entrusted, we ought to organize it so that the following points seem to be well secured:

That a careful investigation of each case take place before pardon be granted:

That the authority be sufficiently strong to resist importunity:

That it contain a sufficient amount of knowledge of the law, its bearing, and object:

That it enjoy the full confidence of the community.

These great objects, it is believed, can be obtained by a board of pardon, consisting of a proper number of members, say nine (in the Republic of Geneva it consists of this number), with one or two judges among them, to be appointed by the Legislature, with a periodical, partial renovation (one third leaving every three years), and with these further provisions:

That the board sit at certain periods of the year, say twice:

That certain and distinct grounds must be stated in every petition for pardon, and that without them all petitions, ever so respectably and numerously signed, be not received:

That pardon can be granted by the Governor only when duly recommended by the board, and must be granted if the board recommend it a second time after the Governor has returned his recommendation with his reasons against it:

That no pardon be recommended without advertising in the county where the convict has lived previous to his imprisonment, and where he has committed his crime, that the board have in view to recommend him to pardon, and without giving proper time to act upon the advertisement:

That no pardon be granted without informing, likewise, the warden of the prison or prisons in which the subject of the intended pardon is or has been incarcerated of the intention of the board:

That no pardon be granted without previous inquiry of the court which has sentenced the convict:

And that the reasons of the pardon when granted be published.

Without some such guaranties, the pardoning power will always be abused. The advertising of the intention of pardoning will not be mistaken for an extra-constitutional and illegal call upon the county to exer-

cise functions which do not belong to it, and ought not to belong to it, as, in reality, the Governor of Ohio years ago resented the execution of a criminal guilty of an atrocious murder, informing at the same time the people of the county whence the criminal came that he was desirous of knowing whether they desired the criminal pardoned or not.*

Nor must it be believed that, while we recommend to inform the warden of a prisoner that his pardon is contemplated, we are desirous of countenancing a system of pardon founded upon the good conduct of the convicts in the prison. We consider such a measure inadmissible for many reasons. It has been tried in France on a large scale, and the effect was so bad that its own author obtained its abolition, confessing his error.† What we desire is, that proper information be obtained before a convict be pardoned, and that no imposition take place. It frequently happens that a pardon is obtained by persons unacquainted with the culprit, and a dangerous and infamous man is returned to a community which had the deepest interest in seeing the law taking its uninterrupted course.

We think it proper that the Executive, thus controlled on the one hand, and protected against importunities on the other, form a party to the pardon, because the actual release must go through his hands.

We doubt not that, if a board of pardoning were established, in a short time a series of fair principles and rules, somewhat like the rules of equity, would be settled by practice, and the pardoning would be far less exposed to arbitrary action.

Totally distinct, however, from the pardoning ought to be kept the *restitution* of a convict, when innocence has been proved after conviction. It is a barbarous confusion to confound acknowledgment of wrong committed by society against an individual with the pardoning of a guilty person. Nothing can be pardoned where nothing is to be pardoned, or where the only pardoner is the convict. He is entitled to indemnity, and the process ought even to be called by a different name and differently to be provided for. Not long ago a person sentenced for forgery in England to transportation for a very long period or for life, we forget which, was pardoned after several years' endurance of the sentence, because his innocence had been made patent. Some English papers justly remarked how incongruous a *pardon* is in such cases, where, in fact, the question is, how a great and ruinous wrong committed by society against an individual may be repaired in some degree at least, and as far as it lies in human power. This is an important subject of its own, deserving the most serious attention of all civilized States, but it does not fall within the province proper of pardoning. An inquiry into it may be offered at some future period.

FRANCIS LIEBER.

* National Gazette, Philadelphia, October 10, 1833.

† De la Ville de Mirmont, Observations sur les Maisons Centrales de Détention de Paris, 1833, p. 55, *et seq.*

OPINION OF THE JUDGES OF NEW YORK CITY ON THE NEW YORK CODE OF CIVIL PROCEDURE.

Superior Court Chambers, }
New York, January 7, 1851. }

DAVID DUDLEY FIELD, Esq.—Dear Sir: In answer to your inquiries as to our views in regard to the practical operations of our code of Procedure, we have no hesitation in saying that we consider it a very great improvement upon the former practice—especially in those particulars in which it has made the most radical changes—we refer to the abolishing the distinction between the different kinds of actions, the abrogation of the old system of pleading, and the blending of legal and equitable jurisdiction.

It was upon this last feature of the code, that we had the most serious doubts; but those doubts have been completely removed, and we regard the administration of legal and equitable remedies, not only in the same forum, but when necessary or proper in the same action, as one of the greatest advantages of the new system. A suitor is no longer told, after several years spent in seeking legal redress, that he is, to be sure, entitled to it, but he has mistaken the place, he must apply at the next door; on the contrary, he now obtains, at once, all the relief to which the facts of his case, as set forth in the pleadings and established by the proofs, entitle him, whether that relief be legal or equitable, or both.

We have had considerable experience in hearing equity causes—many of them transferred from the old Court of Chancery, and of that class of cases which, under the new system, are tried before the court without a jury—and, although we had our misgivings as to the expediency and practicability of the proposed mode, yet we have found that the oral examination of witnesses in open court, is not only the shortest, but the most satisfactory method. In several important and intricate causes, we have taken all the testimony as at *nisi prius*, and then heard the causes upon the pleadings and the proofs thus taken—the whole trial and argument in each case occupying but a few days—where, under the old system, months would have been spent and great expense incurred in taking testimony alone. The power which the court possesses of excluding improper and irrelevant testimony, and that which is cumulative merely, of itself confers an immense advantage on the new system. When the facts have been numerous and complicated, we have sometimes adopted the practice of our Court of Admiralty, and adjourned the cause for a few days, after evidence was all in, to enable the counsel to prepare more thoroughly their argument on the law and the facts. Upon the whole, we are entirely satisfied that justice is now more promptly and more cheaply administered than it was under the old system, and the rights of litigants as carefully protected.

There are, we admit, many inconveniences growing out of so sudden and entire an alteration in the modes of proceeding; and the labor of the judges has been not a little increased. Many of the provisions of the

code are misunderstood and improperly applied. There is much loose and inaccurate pleading, since it is not every lawyer who can state his case, in a complaint or declaration, with brevity and perspicuity, and there is sometimes a clashing in judicial construction of some of the sections. But we do not think that the evils arising from these sources are greater than might have been anticipated. They are temporary in their nature, and are, we think, more than counterbalanced by the benefits to which we have referred.

We are not to be understood, however, as saying that the code is perfect in its present form. We think it susceptible of amendment in many respects, and especially in the subject of pleading. Some provisions, we think, ought to be inserted, which would oblige parties to render the pleadings more definite, and to present more distinctly the issues to be tried. Some of the sections also are ambiguous and obscure. But these defects will probably soon be remedied by judicial construction or legislative action; and such other alterations and improvements as experience may suggest can easily be made. The general features of the code, however, will be retained.

Notwithstanding the disfavor with which it was at first received by a large portion of the bar, and, we believe we may add, of the bench, yet we think that a large majority of both would, at the present moment, be opposed to a return to the old system; and before many years shall have rolled on, it will be a matter of astonishment how we could ever have endured it so long.

It will be understood that we have had reference, in what we have said, to the code of 1849, which is in force at present, and not the code proposed by the Commissioners last winter, with the details of which, so far as they differ from the present code, we are not familiar.

We are, dear sir, with great respect, yours truly,

JOHN DUER,
JOHN L. MASON,
WILLIAM W. CAMPBELL.

New York, Jan. 13, 1851.

DAVID DUDLEY FIELD, Esq.—Dear Sir: In answer to your favor of the 9th inst., asking my views in regard to the practical working of the code, I can only give you the results of my experience.

I consider the code as containing three prominent alterations in the administration of justice, viz: The abolition of all forms of actions, the union of law and equity jurisdiction in the same tribunal, and the alteration of the system of pleading, so as to abolish technicalities and forms, and to substitute a plain statement of the facts constituting the cause of action, or the defence.

I have no hesitation in saying that, in my judgment, the abolition of different forms of actions, and the new system of pleading, when properly carried into effect, will prove to be desirable reforms, and that I have seen nothing, in administering the law under this system, to lead to a contrary opinion. The first relieves the courts from a large amount of litigation upon very immaterial matters, and enables the courts to decide upon the

merits of the controversies that come before them, without reference to useless questions of form; and the second relieves the parties from that nicety of pleading which had, under the old system, become burdensome, while it presents to the court, on the trial, the real merits involved between the parties. Difficulties, it is true, are, as yet, constantly arising before the courts, in restraining parties from inserting in their pleadings improper or irrelevant matter, instead of confining such pleadings to the simple statement which the code directs, but as soon as it is understood that such matters will be stricken out or disregarded by the courts, and the pleadings be confined to what the code permits to be inserted therein, I am satisfied that the true issues will more easily be presented for trial, and much time be saved in the courts on the trial of causes.

In regard to the union of law and equity jurisdiction, I have hardly had sufficient experience to give you an opinion as to the practical effect of the change. But few causes of this description have, as yet, reached the courts for trial. So far as I have had an opportunity of forming an opinion, it is favorable to the change. The result will, undoubtedly, be a great saving of time and expense to suitors, and a more speedy decision of cases by the courts.

The residue of the code relates to mere details of practice. In the introduction of a new system of this kind, it must be expected that many omissions and defects will be found, requiring either judicial decisions or legislative action to remedy. It will require time to perfect the system, with a determination on the part of the judges fairly to carry it into effect; and if there could be some plan resorted to by which the contrary opinions of judges, on questions of practice, could be reviewed, it might be much more efficiently and speedily accomplished.

If terms of the Supreme Court, consisting of three or five judges, were appointed to decide appeals or questions of practice once or twice in a year, whose decisions should control all the courts, uniformity in the construction of the code would be much sooner attained, and one of the greatest difficulties in the practice, under the present system, would be removed.

Under any view of the matter, I do not think a return to the old system desirable. Our exertions now should be to render the present practice as perfect as possible.

I am, with great respect, truly yours,

D. P. INGRAHAM.

ADDRESS

*From the Delegates of the Southern Rights Associations of South Carolina, assembled in Charleston, to the Southern Rights Associations of the other Southern States.**

Having met to take counsel together, and having agreed upon that course which we think it right and necessary to pursue, we wish to lay before you the considerations by which we have been governed, with that

* Issued 8th May, 1851.

frankness which our respect for you, and our desire to merit your good opinion require.

We regard the position of the Southern States in this Confederacy as degraded and ruinous. The manifest tendency of those systematic aggressions which they have suffered for many years past, is to subvert the institution of slavery. If those acts of hostile domination, which have been rendered more insulting by mockery of language, under the term of a compromise, were final in their nature, and were not to be followed by any further aggressions, we should still regard them as outrages, to which sovereign States, possessing the spirit of freedom, ought never to submit. But those measures only form part of a system, gradually commenced, steadily carried forward, gathering strength from development, and proceeding with fatal momentum to its end. That end is the abolition of negro slavery in the Southern States, and the lowering of the free white population of the South to the same level with that agrarian rabble, which, already strong and dangerous, seems destined, before very long, to be the controlling power in the Northern States.

We see no remedy and no safety for the South in the present Union. But we know that in this we differ from very many citizens of the other Southern States, spirited and intelligent, having the same interests, and suffering under the same wrongs, with ourselves, and who cherish the hope that the rights of the South may be vindicated and secured without dissolving the existing Confederacy. In this difference, it does not become us to assume to dictate, and we hope to stand free from that charge. Up to this time, the citizens of South Carolina, aware that peculiarity of political position, arising from past events, rendered a certain reserve on their part prudent and proper, have studiously avoided everything which might look like assuming the lead in the defence of Southern Rights. They desired to act, because they believed that safety and honor required action; but they hoped that they might find leaders in other States, whom they might follow in defence of the common cause.

When the ancient Commonwealth of Virginia, the proper leader of the South declared her determination to resist, at all hazards and to the last extremity, hostile measures then threatened, South Carolina, with all alacrity, stood ready to support Virginia in carrying out her high resolution. When Georgia—whose former resistance to Federal usurpation, under her heroic statesman, Troupe, gave promise of unflinching firmness in any contest in which she might engage—proclaimed her determination to make a stand for the rights of the South, South Carolina rejoiced at the prospect of rallying under the banner of Georgia. And when her young and gallant sister, Mississippi, proposed the wise measure of a Southern Convention, for the purpose of endeavoring to unite the Southern States in maintaining their constitutional rights, and at the same time preserving, if possible, the existing Union, South Carolina heartily entered into this measure; and she has carried out the recommendation of the Convention so assembled at the instance of Mississippi, by providing for the election of Delegates to a Southern Congress, to whose meeting she still looks with anxious interest.

In all these proceedings, we think that the citizens of South Carolina

have evinced all proper anxiety to avoid the appearance of arrogance or dictation, to act in concert with the citizens of the other Southern States, and to do nothing separately or precipitately. And now, strongly as we have expressed our belief that there is no hope for the South in the existing Union, we are prepared to give a trial fairly and in good faith, to any effectual plan which may be proposed by any sister State of the South for obtaining redress for the past and security for the future, without a dissolution of the existing Union, if there be a possibility of such a consummation.

But we find ourselves forced to consider the ulterior question, what we are to do, if we find that there is no reasonable hope of the co-operation of any other Southern State in any effectual plan of relief, and the alternative is presented to us, of submitting, or acting by ourselves. And reluctant, as we are to separate ourselves from our natural friends and allies, we have made up our minds. We cannot submit. We know that South Carolina entered this Confederacy as a Sovereign and independent State, and that having been wronged, she has the perfect right to withdraw from it. Her sons must exercise the right and meet the consequences.

If no other State will join us in relieving ourselves from the wrongs already inflicted, we see no hope in waiting for new outrages to arouse a higher spirit of resistance. The new outrages, we are well convinced, will come in due time; but we feel no assurance that the spirit of the vassal will rise in proportion to the indignities heaped upon his head. On the contrary, we see that the South has already borne what it would not for a moment have submitted to ten years ago, and what the North would not then have ventured to perpetrate. We are not willing to try the experiment how long it will be before our spirit is completely broken, by gradually and continually yielding to slow and gradual but unceasing encroachments. And if the exercise of the right of secession is to be followed by the attempt on the part of the Government of this Confederacy to subjugate South Carolina, it is better that we should meet that attempt while we still have some spirit and some power of resistance left. If we are to submit to the condition of a conquered people, we think it less dishonorable not to do so until we have first been conquered. And if anything could add to the necessity which we believe exists for a withdrawal from the existing Union, it would be the denial of the right of secession. For the denial of that right indicates of itself extreme danger.

The right of secession has heretofore, and in better days, been regarded as unquestionable by all Southern politicians, with the exception of an inconsiderable number of consolidationists. And if ever that right can be denied without arousing the whole South to sustain it, the South will be ripe for the most miserable fate which has ever befallen any people. It will then, as a permanent sectional minority, have no defence against the tyranny of Government combining all the vices of the corruptest democracy and the most oppressive foreign despotism. We know the consequences which will follow a failure in our efforts to maintain our liberty. We see clearly that a triumphant exertion of the power of the Federal Government, in subjugating a State, will vastly increase that

power, and greatly accelerate the change, already far advanced, of our Federative system into a consolidated central despotism. We see, also, that South Carolina will not suffer the consequences of this change alone, but that the rest of the Southern States must suffer in an equal degree. They will have no safeguard against the Central Government, strengthened by crushing opposition, and rendered, by triumphant force, what our Northern enemies have long been endeavoring to make it by fraudulent usurpation—the supreme government of a consolidated nation.

The sovereignty of one Southern State cannot be destroyed, without the loss of their sovereignty by all the others. We are aware of the responsibility of doing an act which may hasten these consequences. We feel the respect which we owe to States having a common interest, threatened by a common danger, but not equally persuaded with ourselves of the necessity of action. And nothing would induce us to take, without their concurrence, a course which is to involve them in its consequences, but a thorough conviction of the necessity which urges us, and of our right to do so. Addressing citizens of Southern States, associated to maintain the rights of the South, we cannot imagine it to be necessary to argue about the right of secession. We hold it to be the great State right, without which all others are nugatory and incapable of being enforced; and your position assures us that your faith cannot be different from ours.

Nor can we regard it as necessary any farther to discuss the wrongs which have been inflicted on the Southern States. They may be denied by those who shut their eyes to them, but you do not belong to that class. Southern and State Rights men may differ as to the necessity of exercising the right of secession at a particular time, on account of those wrongs. But as certainly as the right exists, each State must possess the right of judging for herself, as to the occasion and time for its exercise. If South Carolina decides that honor and safety require her to secede, she has the right to leave the Confederacy peaceably and without molestation. If the act of secession is not permitted to be peaceable, it will be from usurpation of power by the Federal Government, not from the nature of the act performed by South Carolina. Accustomed as we have been to violations of the Constitution, and of the rights of the Southern States by the Federal Government, we have to look forward to the probability of another outrage by that Government, in the attempt to force the State to remain in the Union. We suppose the attempt will be made, if the other Southern States permit it. Those States must decide for themselves whether they will permit it. South Carolina must decide for herself whether it is necessary to secede. Her sister States of the South will have no right to complain that she forces them into a position where they must either interpose to prevent her subjugation, or, by consenting to it, abandon their own sovereignty, and lay themselves at the mercy of a despotic power. In seceding, South Carolina will simply do an act which all Southern men who believe in the existence of State rights at all, must admit that she has a perfect right to do, and which she regards as absolutely necessary. She will be acting on her sacred right. She will be acting, as she would have to act, if none of the other Southern

States were in existence, and she were the only object of aggression by the Northern States and the Federal Government. She is not answerable for the usurpations and injustice which may be committed against her. And for her sister States of the South to ask of her to refrain from an exercise of right which she regards as indispensable for self-preservation, would be an interference with her free action of a far different character from any with which she can be charged towards them. Sovereigns are equals. In seceding alone, South Carolina would be placing her sister States of the South under no constraint. If they should find themselves in a position of constraint, it would come from the action of the Federal Government, not of South Carolina. But if they should insist upon her refraining from the exercise of her right, and submitting to a condition which she regards as intolerable, they would make themselves parties with the Federal Government, in placing an unjustifiable constraint upon a sovereign and an equal.

We wish that the necessity for separate action by South Carolina, which we have contemplated, may be averted. We confide in the gallant spirits whom we address. There may be some hope of the assembling of a Southern Congress to devise measures of redress and relief, upon which some of the injured States may unite. We have heretofore been willing to sacrifice much for Southern Union. We still are. We do not desire to lead, but to follow. Propose any effectual measures for vindicating our common rights, and providing for our common safety, and we will heartily unite with you in carrying them out. We should regret most deeply to incur the censure of friends, with whom we have the strongest desire to act in concert. But we feel a deep conviction that we have not acted heretofore with any precipitation, and that we are in the right in the determination which we have formed. The self-abasement of submission, appears to us unworthy of men still pretending to be free. The gloomy prospect of inevitable ruin, to follow submission, appears to us more formidable than any dangers to be encountered in contending alone, against whatever odds, for our rights. We have come to the deliberate conclusion, that if it be our fate to be left alone in the struggle, alone we must vindicate our liberty by secession.

The Resolutions adopted by a Committee appointed to draw up resolutions expressive of the views of the Convention.

1. Resolved, That in the opinion of this meeting, the State of South Carolina cannot submit to the wrongs and aggressions which have been perpetrated by the Federal Government and the Northern States, without dishonor and ruin; and that it is necessary to relieve herself therefrom, whether with or without the co-operation of other Southern States.

2. Resolved, That concert of action with one or more of her sister States of the South, whether through the proposed Southern Congress, or in any other manner, is an object worth many sacrifices, but not the sacrifice involved in submission.

3. Resolved, That we hold the right of Secession to be essential to the sovereignty and freedom of the States of this Confederacy; and that the

denial of that right would furnish to an injured State the strongest additional cause for its exercise.

4. Resolved, That this meeting looks with confidence and hope to the Convention of the People, to exert the sovereign power of the States in defence of its rights, at the earliest practicable period and in the most effectual manner; and to the Legislature, to adopt the most speedy and effectual measure towards the same end.

SPEECH OF HER BRITANNIC MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA,
ON THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT,
4th FEBRUARY, 1851.

MY LORDS AND GENTLEMEN:—It is with great satisfaction that I again meet my parliament, and resort to your advice and assistance, in the consideration of measures which affect the welfare of our country. I continue to maintain the relations of peace and amity with foreign powers.

It has been my endeavor to induce the states of Germany to carry into full effect the provisions of the treaty with Denmark, which was concluded at Berlin in the month of July of last year.

I am much gratified in being able to inform you that the German confederation and the government of Denmark are now engaged in fulfilling the stipulations of that treaty, and thereby putting an end to hostilities which at one time appeared full of danger to the peace of Europe.

I trust that the affairs of Germany may be arranged by mutual agreement, in such a measure as to produce and preserve the strength of the confederation, and to maintain the freedom of its separate states.

I have concluded with the King of Sardinia articles additional to the treaty of Sept., 1841, and have directed that those articles shall be laid before you.

The government of Brazil has taken new and I hope efficient measures for the suppression of the atrocious traffic in slaves.

Gentlemen of the House of Commons:—I have directed the estimates of the year to be prepared and laid before you without delay. They have been framed with a due regard to economy and to the necessities of the public service.

My Lords and Gentlemen:—Notwithstanding the large reductions of taxation which have been effected of late years, the receipts of the revenue have been satisfactory—the state of the commerce and manufactures of the United Kingdom has been such as to afford general enjoyment to the laboring classes.

I have to lament, however, the difficulties which are still felt by that important body among my people who are owners and occupants of land. But it is my confident hope that the prosperous condition of other classes of my subjects will have a favorable effect in diminishing those difficulties and promoting the interest of agriculture.

The recent assumption of certain ecclesiastical titles, conferred by a

foreign power, has excited strong feelings in this country, and large bodies of my subjects have presented addresses to me, expressing attachment to the throne, and praying that such assumptions should be resisted.

I have assured them of my resolution to maintain the rights of my crown and the independence of the nation against all encroachments, from whatever quarter it may proceed. I have at the same time expressed my earnest desire and firm determination, under God's blessing, to maintain unimpaired the religious liberty which is so justly prized by the people of this country. It will be for you to consider the measure which will be laid before you on this subject.

The administration of justice in the several departments of law and equity will no doubt receive the serious attention of parliament. A measure will be laid before you providing for the establishment of a system of registration of deeds and instruments relating to the transfer of property.

PROGRAMME OF THE VIEWS OF BRITISH CHARTISTS,

(Adopted by the Chartist Convention, held at London, 10th April, 1851.)

THE paramount duty of a Chartist National Convention is to promote chartist organization, to keep that organization distinct from every other political movement or alloy, and to spread through all classes political and social knowledge to the utmost of its power.

I. It is, therefore, resolved, for the better re-organization of chartism :

1. That, since by each and all of the franchise measures now before the people (excepting that embodied in the charter), the middle classes would gain far more votes than the working class, which would place the latter in a more powerless position than at present, the charter must be agitated for in its entirety—that the omission of any one of its points would impair the utility of the remainder—and that, therefore, popular support must be withheld from all franchise measures falling short of its provisions.

2. That the clause in the original bill for the charter, specifying that every male adult should have the vote, unless convicted of crime, be modified to imply a deprivation of the vote merely while undergoing punishment for crime, since, the punishment for an offence once undergone, no after penalty ought, in justice, to attach to the individual.

3. That a national petition for the charter be presented to Parliament, such petition to be prepared on the following plan :—Simultaneous meetings for passing the petition to be held in every town or borough, where practicable. At such meetings two tellers to be appointed to count the numbers present ; the petition, together with a declaration affirming the numbers in favor of such petition, to be signed by the tellers and chairman of the meeting.

4. That, in anticipation of a dissolution of parliament, all boroughs where the chartist body are strong enough to contest the election, forthwith fix on candidates pledged to the charter in its entirety, form election

committees, subscribe funds, commence agitating the district, and bring their influence to bear on the constituency. That where the candidate cannot go to the poll, a chartist be put in nomination upon every hustings in the kingdom, when it is possible to seize that opportunity for spreading chartist knowledge.

II. Municipal and parochial power should be vested in the hands of the people, since disfranchisement in local matters is as unjust as the restriction of the elective franchise. Therefore, it is resolved :

1. That the assistance which chartist organization may derive from municipal and local power be not lost sight of, and that practical steps be taken in all townships and parishes (where democratic organization is in existence) to contest the municipal elections.

2. That addresses be issued to the people relative to municipal and parochial legislation, and that the question of municipal and parochial universal suffrage be brought before the public on principles analogous to those of the charter.

III. It is further resolved that the agitation for the charter be carried among the trades, to strengthen both movements through mutual aid ; that communications be entered into with the executives of the trades' unions, the various trades' bodies, and associations of working men, for that purpose, pointing out the reciprocal advantage to accrue from co-operation between the two great sections of reformers.

IV. That the agricultural counties be divided into districts ; that tracts and addresses to farmers and laborers be prepared and issued.

That missionaries taking with them a supply of such tracts and addresses be sent into the several districts, and that public meetings and lectures be held in the rural towns for the purpose of establishing localities.

That missionaries be also sent to the Irish people, and to the colliers, miners, and railway laborers.

The expenses, where necessary, to be borne by the National Chartist Fund.

This convention is further of opinion, that the best way to enlist sympathy with the chartist movement is to show its bearings on the grievances of all suffering classes, that those classes may be taught to see in chartism the leverage of their hopes ; that the best way to impress and weaken class government, is to show those who yet support it that the chartists would do them more good than class government can or will afford ; pouring one continuous stream of agitation on class government, from every portion of the toiling community ; attacking every one of its monopolies ; assailing every one of its strongholds, and breaking them down in detail, even to their foundation.

The convention is also of opinion that a political change would be inefficacious unless accompanied by a social change ; that a chartist movement, unless accompanied with social knowledge, would result in utter failure ; that we ought to enlist, not merely the politician, but the man of business ; that we cannot claim or receive the support of the laborer, mechanic, farmer, or trader, unless we show that we are practical reformers—that power would be safely vested in chartist hands—that we

know their grievances and how to redress them; that the charter would confer on them a positive, immediate, and permanent benefit, and at once increase alike their comforts and resources.

The chartist body should, therefore, stand forward as the protector of the oppressed; each suffering class should see in it the redresser of its several wrongs; it should be the connecting link that draws together, on one common ground, the now isolated bodies of the working classes—self-interest being the best tie able to bind them to each other.

It is, therefore, time that the self-interest of every one of the oppressed classes be appealed to. Each one of these classes demands a measure of social reform proportioned to its wants—though various, these requirements are not conflicting—one right can never contradict another—truth can never antagonize with truth.

To stand forth as the uniter of all these isolated, but, in fact, homogeneous interests—to weld the millions into one compact mass—to evoke the dormant mind of the country, and thus to launch the gathered power in the right direction, is the duty and endeavor of this delegation of the people.

The convention, deeply impressed with this truth, while keeping chartism distinct as an organized political body, not joining any other section, nor mixing it with any other organization, recommends that the public attention be directed to the following principles:—That the subjoined remedial measures to be submitted to the classes severally interested; that their support of chartist organization be solicited, on the ground of these reforms, and that these be made the subject of continuous and universal instruction.

I.—THE LAND.

This convention believes that the land is the inalienable inheritance of all mankind, and that, therefore, its present monopoly is repugnant to the laws of God and nature. The nationalization of the land is the only true basis of national prosperity.

With a view of arriving at this *ultimatum*, it is resolved that the following measures be successively urged upon the public:—

1. The establishment of a board of agriculture.

2. The restoration of poor, common, church, and crown lands to the people.

Such lands to be divided in suitable proportions. All persons located upon them to be tenants of the State, paying a proportionate rent-charge for their holdings.

3. Compensation to out-going tenants for improvements.

Tenants not to be tied down to any old covenants or rotation of crops.

The repeal of the game laws.

All rents to be commuted into corn-rents.

4. The State to be empowered to purchase land, for the purpose of locating thereon the population, as tenants, individually or in association, paying a rent-charge to the State. The funds for that purpose to arise from the rent-charge payable on the common, church, poor, and crown lands above-mentioned, and such other sources as may hereafter be determined.

5. Government purchasing land as above not to be permitted to sell again, but to hold such lands as national property forever, letting them to tenants in such quantities and under such conditions as may secure freedom to the tenant and safety to the State.

6. The State to have priority of purchase, at fair current prices.

7. To provide for the final and complete nationalization of land, the State to resume possession of the soil as rapidly as the existing interests can be extinguished by process of law, by death, by surrender, or by any means accordant with justice and a generous treatment of all classes.

II.—THE CHURCH.

Religion should be free; as spiritual, it ought not to be subject to temporal control.

Therefore the convention recommend:—

1. Complete separation between church and State.

2. All church temporalities to be declared national property, except such individual endowments as have been voluntarily and legally made.

All ecclesiastical buildings, of which it can be clearly shown that their cost was defrayed from national funds, to belong to the State. The persuasion now using these edifices to continue in the enjoyment of them on equitable conditions.

3. Tithes and church rates to be abolished.

4. The State not to interfere with the internal polity of any church. All ecclesiastics to be appointed in any way their respective congregation think fit, and to be paid voluntarily by the congregations that employ their services.

5. Ecclesiastical licenses for purposes of education to be unnecessary.

III.—EDUCATION.

As every man has a right to the means of physical life, so he has to the means of mental activity. It is as unjust to withhold aliment from the mind as it is to deny food to the body. Education should, therefore, be national, universal, gratuitous, and, to a certain extent, compulsory.

It is, therefore, recommended:—

1. That schools, colleges, and universities, supported by the State, be gratuitously open to every citizen, and that it be compulsory with all parents to have their children educated in the common branches of learning.

2. That education, in its higher branches, be equally gratuitous, but optional.

3. That industrial schools be established, in which the young may be taught the various trades and professions, thus gradually superseding the system of apprenticeship.

IV.—LABOR LAW.

Labor is the creator of a nation's wealth—as such the most important element of its prosperity. Notwithstanding this, the relation of master and man has been repugnant to the well-being of society; the creator has hitherto been the servant of the creature; labor has been the slave of

capital, and groaned under a system of wages-slavery, contrary to every principle of freedom.

To elevate labor from its present depressed condition, the following measures are proposed, with a view to the more rapid abrogation of wages-slavery, and the due development of the co-operative principle:—

1. That all co-operative associations for industrial purposes, have a right to registration and enrolment without payment of fees, and to possess an unrestricted number of affiliated branches.

2. That the law of partnership be so altered as to remove existing difficulties in the way of association.

3. That since the co-operative system is essential to the well-being of the people, since the centralization of wealth ought to be counteracted by a distributive tendency, and since its accumulation in the hands of isolated clubs is an evil secondary only to that of its monopoly by individuals, all future co-operative attempts, until the complete re-adjustment of the labor question, be modelled on a national basis, and connected in a national union, of which the different trades and societies be localities or branches; and that the profits, beyond a certain amount, of each local society, should be paid into a general fund, for the purpose of forming additional associations of working men, and thus accelerating the development of associated and independent labor.

4. That a credit fund be opened by the State, for the purpose of advancing money, on certain conditions, to bodies of working men desirous of associating together for industrial purposes.

V.—POOR LAW.

As it is the duty of every man to work, so every man has the right to the means of work; and those unable to work through infirmity or age, have a right to support at the hands of the State.

Therefore:—

1. All able-bodied persons, who cannot support themselves, should be supplied with remunerative work, and, where possible, located on the land.

2. Where the State cannot find work for the unemployed, it is bound to support them until labor is provided.

3. The unemployed should be supported by the State, not by the parish, and the cost be defrayed out of the national revenue.

4. The aged and infirm should be supported in their own homes, in the houses of their relatives, or in special buildings, erected by Government, at the option of the recipients.

VI.—TAXATION.

Taxation on industry represses the production of wealth; on luxuries, encourages governments in fostering excess; on necessary commodities, acts injuriously on the people's health and comfort.

All taxation ought, therefore, to be levied on land and accumulated property.

VII.—THE NATIONAL DEBT. —

This debt having been incurred by a class government for class purposes, cannot be considered as legally contracted by the people.

It is, moreover, absurd that future generations should be mortgaged to eternity for the follies or misfortunes of their ancestors, and the debt be thus repaid several times over.

The national debt ought, therefore, to be liquidated by the money now annually paid as interest, applied as repayment of the capital, until such repayment is completed.

VIII.—CURRENCY.

The convention considers that a change in our currency laws is absolutely necessary for the welfare of the producers of this country, and recommends that the executive committee of the National Chartist Association, by addresses and tracts, direct the attention of the country to this subject.

IX.—THE ARMY.

Standing armies are contrary to the principles of democracy, and dangerous to the liberties of the people. At the same time, the convention acknowledge the expediency of a standing force being maintained until suitable changes in our colonies and at home shall have rendered its continuance no longer requisite.

Until such change, the following enactments are necessary for the comfort of the soldier and the safety of the citizen :—

1. That no enlistment be binding unless renewed, before a magistrate, by the person enlisting, after the expiration of a period of one week.

2. That the soldier have a right to a free discharge at the end of four years.

3. That the soldier be no longer confined in barracks, since the isolation of troops estranges them from citizens, renders them unfit for the duties of domestic life, demoralizes them, and is unnecessary for discipline, as proved by such discipline not being impaired when troops are quartered on the inhabitants, which is frequently the case both in peace and war.

4. That troops quartered on the inhabitants be paid for as lodgers, and that none be compelled to receive them.

5. That promotion take place from the ranks by military gradation, and that none be promoted before at least one year's service in the ranks.

6. That promotion by purchase be abolished.

7. That the use of the lash be abolished.

8. That court-martials consist, in all cases, of officers and privates in like proportion.

X.—THE NAVY.

To be regulated by analogous laws.

XI.—THE MILITIA.

As it is the right of every individual to bear arms, so it is his duty to know how to use them ; as every citizen ought to receive a benefit at the hands of the State, so he ought to be prepared to defend it ; and, as

liberty is not safe where an unarmed and undisciplined people stands in presence of an armed and disciplined class, it is, therefore, requisite that every male, over fifteen years of age, should be afforded the opportunity of military training.

XII.—THE PRESS.

Absolute freedom of thought and expression being one of the primary and most sacred of the rights of man, all restrictions on printing and publishing are unjust and iniquitous; this convention, therefore, declares its decided hostility to the taxes on knowledge, and recommends the total abolition of

The duty on paper;

The duty on advertisements;

The penny stamp-tax on newspapers;

And the import duty on foreign books and publications.

Addresses, each embodying one of the preceding measures of reform, to be circulated, together with an exposition of the charter, and its necessity for enabling such reform to be obtained.

G. W. M. Reynolds	Greenwich and Kent.
John Gray	North Lancashire.
Thornton Hunt	Hampshire and Edinburgh.
Alfred Hunniball	Westm'r and Marylebone.
George Shell	Surrey.
John Shaw	Tower Hamlets.
James Finlen	City and Finsbury.
Abraham Robinson	Bradford district.
Thomas Martin Wheeler	Exeter and Tiverton.
Feergus O'Connor, M. P.	Manchester.
George Joseph Mantle	Ditto.
George Julian Harney	Worcester and Gloucester.
Thomas Savage	Bristol.
Ernest Jones	Halifax district.
Rev. Alexander Duncanson	Paisley district.
William Felkin	Nottinghamshire.
James Capewell	Hanley and Potteries.
John James Bezer	Sheffield district.
William Benfold	Cheshire.
Alexander Yates	Coventry district.
John Barker	Northamptonshire.
George Wray	Leicestershire.
Daniel William Ruffly	South Shields.
Walter Pringle	Edinburgh district.
Thomas Hirst	Huddersfield district.
James Graham	Dundee district.
John Moss	Derbyshire.
James Watson	Newcastle-upon-Tyne.
Daniel Thompson	Dudley district.
Daniel Paul	Glasgow district.

Convention Room, 72 St. Martin's lane.

JOHN ARNOTT, *Secretary.*

FAREWELL GENERAL ORDER OF SIR CHARLES E. NAPIER TO THE ANGLO-INDIAN ARMY.

Head-Quarters, Camp, Ferozepore, Dec. 15.

1. It would neither be justifiable nor becoming in me to interfere with the private affairs of officers in the army which I have the honor to command, so long as those private affairs do not interfere with the public service. But when they injure the public service, when they reflect disgrace upon our uniform, it becomes my duty to draw attention to the subject, and in this public manner call upon the officers of the Queen's and Company's services to exert themselves in maintaining the honor of their regiments by assisting the Commander-in-Chief in putting a check upon those whose debts are no less injurious to the fair fame of the military profession, than discreditable to their regiments and ruinous to themselves.

2. It is more than one year since I received a very excellent letter from a Brigadier upon this important subject. I had then just assumed my present command. I waited to see more clearly how matters stood before I felt justified in touching upon affairs of so private a nature. From that time to this day a considerable portion of my time has been taken up in the examination of weekly, if not daily, complaints against officers for non-payment of debts, and, in some instances, the ruin of tradesmen has been consequent on that cause. There is, therefore, a call upon me for this order—a call which cannot be cast aside.

3. When it is considered that the army is of immense magnitude, I am bound to say that the number of officers who have misconducted themselves in a manner so derogatory to the character of gentlemen is not inordinate: but at the same time it is so large as to demand repression with a strong hand; and I do trust that the officers of regiments will take not only vigorous, but rigorous, measures to bring those who are guilty to a sense of shame at being ordered to appear before a Court of Requests for debt. An officer who is summoned before a Court of Requests must feel conscious that, although wearing the British uniform, he is not standing there in the character of a gentleman! He must feel, if he feels at all, disgust at his own degraded position. He may, by possibility, have been unfortunate; he may only have been thoughtless, he must feel in his heart that he is before the public, in a group with the infamous,—with those who are cheats, and whose society is contamination. A well-bred gentleman cannot support this feeling.

4. I am not merely a rich man speaking to those who are poor. I have known poverty, and have lived for years on less than half what every ensign in this army receives, and so lived, too, in a more expensive country than India. I take no merit to myself for this—I only state it as a fact, that I may not be taunted on the threshold of my argument by being told that I know nothing of the difficulties of poverty. I do know them perfectly, and I know more—I know that every ensign in India can live well on his pay, and that many who have never appeared before a Court of Requests have largely assisted their families—largely, compared to their means.

5. I do not say that a subaltern officer can give dinners ; I do not say he can indulge in many luxuries ; I do not say he can cast off all self-denial ; nor do I see why he should do any of these things. The proceedings before these Courts of Requests are the shameful proofs that he should not. When an officer gets a commission, he, without that labor which attends the initiation into most other professions, at once receives a good income, and that before he has any knowledge of his trade. In most other professions a young man hardly gets his food at the commencement. The families of many officers, if not of all, have made great sacrifices to gain this amply sufficient income for those officers, and these last have no right whatever to live as if they were gentlemen of landed property, nor as men do who have served longer and earned a higher rank and greater income than themselves. It is the desire to imitate those above us, and not to regard our own means, that is mischievous to all, and most so to young men.

6. The result is ruin to numbers. To show this I will quote from two Brigadiers' letters, sent officially for my perusal, upon this degrading subject. 'At a Court of Requests, held on the 6th inst., there were 53 cases, and (with the exception of four of trifling amount) all against subalterns—amount, 4875 rupees.' Again, the same officer writes, 'Decrees of execution general are not unfrequent, and the efficiency of officers is seriously affected by their pecuniary embarrassments.' Again : 'Although I am aware that it is very difficult to control the expenditure of officers, yet when they are brought forward thus publicly, month after month, I consider it my duty to bring to the notice of his Excellency the involved circumstances of the officers under my command, with whom, in other respects, I have no fault to find.'

7. Another Brigadier writes thus :—'Another officer I know enjoys champagne tiffins, leaving his servants to drag him before the court for their just claims. How humiliating for those connected with, and proud of, the profession !' Yes, it is humiliating, and long experience tells us, that it is to the exemplary conduct of regimental officers, and to the sentences of Courts-martial, that the army must look for correcting this baseness in individuals. That the Commander-in-Chief will support the officers of regiments I may venture to assert, whoever that Commander-in-Chief may be ; but the close and dominating power to keep down such misconduct is in the messes. The man must be base, in every sense of the word, that can bear the contumely of his comrades, incurred by a disgraceful action. But I must not confine myself to messes alone. Commanders of regiments should strenuously exert themselves to maintain the good name of their regiments. They should recollect that Courts of Requests, when they decide that justice to a tradesman or other creditor demands of them to put an officer under stoppages, pronounce that the said officer is a man so lost to all sense of propriety that he endeavors to defraud his creditor, and, therefore, cannot longer be considered in the light of a gentleman. He is forced to be honorable against his will ; and it is the bounden duty of the commanding officer to refuse to such a person all indulgence, and to hold him so strictly in hand that such misconduct

on the officer's part may, at all events, be as disagreeable to that officer himself as it is to his regiment and his tradesmen.

8. That I am not exaggerating these matters I could easily prove by publishing such facts to the officers of the two armies as would shock every honest and honorable man, and show entirely I am authorized in saying that these facts are, to the last degree, dishonorable. One commanding officer of a regiment writes thus :—' I can confidently assert that the numerous cases brought monthly before the Courts of Requests is a disgrace to the army we belong to.' This is one among many who are laboring for the honor of the service.

9. I have not sought for this information from officers ; these letters came uninvited from men of high rank in both the Queen's and the Company's services, and have been sent to me, formally, as official complaints. They are men who feel as every officer in the Queen's and Company's services ought to feel.

10. But, while stating how very disgraceful it is for an officer to appear before a Court of Requests, I will say a few words upon the causes of such conduct.

11. The first is, that some young men get commissions without having had much education, or, perhaps, a vulgar one, which is worse. These officers are not aware that honesty is inseparable from the character of a thoroughbred gentleman. A vulgar man, who 'enjoys a champagne tiffin and swindles his servants' (as a Brigadier writes to me, when speaking of these matters, and referring to an officer under his immediate command), may be a pleasant companion to those who do not hold him in contempt as a vulgar knave, but he is not a gentleman. His commission makes him an officer, but he is not a gentleman, and I claim that character in all its integrity for the officers of Her Majesty's service, and for those of the Hon. East India Company. I speak of men whose own misconduct has brought them into debt—not of those whom misfortune has thrown into debt. These last are very few in number, and very unfortunate indeed to be on the same list with those whom they despise. Of those who are so unfortunate I need not speak ; their own exertions to pay their debts are unceasing and honorable.

12. The second cause is, that young men arrive in India, and think that, having escaped from school, it is manly to be dishonorable. So they cheat the Government by not attending to their duties, and they cheat their tradesmen by not paying their debts. They meet champagne-drinking swindlers, who sponge on them and lead them into expense. Thus comes debt—then bankers are at hand to advance money. Thus they become involved past redemption, and soon the habit of being constantly in debt makes them grow callous to the proper feelings of a gentleman.

13. Now, if all officers commanding regiments were to do their duty (as great numbers do), and if the body of officers of each regiment would give such a commander proper support, this course would not be followed by young men on their arrival in India. By strict lessons in their duties, and plenty of drill, the commanding officers of regiments would prevent Government being cheated, and by the proper gentleman-like conduct and honorable sentiments which should pervade every mess,

reprobating expenses and extravagance of all sorts, and by practising rigid economy in the establishment, the young officer would at once learn that to drink unpaid-for champagne, unpaid-for beer, and to ride unpaid-for horses, is to be a cheat, and not a gentleman.

14. The third cause of debt is, the constant marching of regiments. This has no remedy in time of war, and I have strongly recommended that it should be, as much as possible, avoided in time of peace. It is very severe on the troops, and on the State itself. The Governor-General concurred in my recommendation that the troops should not be generally relieved this year, and I hope none may be moved for some years to come, if peace continues. However, these marches ought not to throw careful and honorable men into debt. They are, when required, the proper and just demands of the service, and every man can be, and ought to be, fully prepared to meet them. Still these marches are causes of difficulty, and the difficulties which result from them are, in some degree, excusable in very young and inexperienced men, but not so in old officers who have risen to the rank of lieutenant.

15. The fourth cause of debt is the extravagance of messes. This I entirely charge upon the commanding officers. Many regiments (both Queen's and Company's) have economical messes, especially in the Queen's regiments, because the number of officers in the latter is so large. But many regiments are extravagant; and in all cases where a mess is extravagant, the fault lies with the commanding officer. I have heard it said by some that 'the commanding officer ought not to interfere with the mess, which should be considered as the private table of the officers.' Now, people who talk thus forget that there is a wide difference between a mess and a private gentleman's table. The last is regulated by his income, and there is but one income and one master to be consulted as to expense. But in a mess there are many masters, and the mess must be regulated by the income of the poorest. The majority have no right to crush the poor and prudent officers, with the extent of whose liabilities they are utterly ignorant. Must an officer, because he belongs to a mess, explain all his distresses, his misfortunes, his generosities, his follies, to the members of a mess, in order to prove his incompetency to meet its extravagance? Common sense forbids this; yet, unless the mess is on such an economical footing as to enable the ensign on his pay to join it, this infringement on a gentleman's private liabilities and demands must take place; and the commanding officer alone can protect every one under his orders from the often insufferable presumption of mess committees. He alone can properly direct and so rule matters that the ensign can live on his pay, and live becomingly; that is to say, save on his pay. I do not call drinking wine or beer, or inviting friends, 'becoming.' It may be so, or it may not, according to the means and feelings of each individual. All I maintain is, that the mess must leave each member free to do as his means enable him; for each officer is individually responsible for his conduct to the public, from which he receives his pay. This is justice, and justice can never be wrong. The pay of an ensign is sufficient for his just expenditure, and the commanding officer is, and can alone be, responsible that this rule of rigid and just economy is never infringed. What officer

will go to a mess committee and tell his private misfortunes, or his difficulties? Yet this is what those people (who say that the commanders of regiments ought not to interfere with the mess) want! They are overbearing tyrants, who want to set aside the private affairs of officers, and to make those officers who cannot afford such extravagance, pay for these persons' selfish enjoyments, which they want to indulge in at other men's expense. That is the real object of those who wish to prevent the interference of commanding officers; but the rules of both Queen's and Company's service give commanding officers the right to interfere, and the Commander-in-Chief will take care to hold him responsible that the ensign has his rights; namely, the power to live at the mess as becomes an officer and a gentleman—drinking water if he pleases or drinking champagne if he pleases; but able out of his pay to liquidate his debts like a gentleman, drinking what he may. That is to say, that the necessary mess charges leave him enough out of his pay to cover all his other reasonable expenses.

16. The fifth cause of expense and ruin I believe to be the banks. They afford a ready means for the young and foolish to obtain money, but at an enormous interest. I have heard the objection to banks contested on the score that formerly officers who now borrow from banks borrowed from natives, and even from their own soldiers; that it is, therefore, better for an officer to be in debt to a bank than to natives. I am unable to say what was formerly done, but I am perfectly sure that whatever facilitates the borrowing of money produces ruin to young officers, encouraging those vices which are the most mischievous, especially racing,—a vice always accompanied by gambling and extravagance.

17. Some of the evils which I have touched upon may be remedied by the Commander-in-Chief; some by commanders of regiments; some by the officers of regiments as bodies; and some by individuals themselves. To these I must leave them. I can only offer my advice as I quit the scene. To-day I am Commander-in-Chief; a week hence I shall be no more to the armies of India than a private gentleman. But the armies of India must ever be much and dear to me! For nine years my whole energies, such as they are, have been devoted to the honor and glory of the Company's troops. I may say that I have become as much identified with the armies of the three Presidencies as if I had risen from their ranks; I have jealously guarded their honor, and I have fought at their head.

18. I now leave them forever. But in the retirement of private life, although no longer able to serve them, the destinies of the Indian armies will ever occupy my thoughts.

19. I here take leave of them, hoping that this order will be of use, as the last which I can issue to the armies of India.

C. J. NAPIER, *General,*
Commander-in-Chief, East Indies.

AN ACT REGARDING THE LIABILITY OF SHIP-OWNERS.

Passed at the second session of the thirty-first Congress of the United States.

A bill to limit the liability of ship-owners, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, No owner or owners of any ship or vessel, shall be subject or liable to answer for or make good to any one, or more person or persons, any loss or damage which may happen to any goods or merchandise whatsoever, which shall be shipped, taken in, or put on board any such ship or vessel, by reason or by means of any fire happening to or on board the said ship or vessel, unless such fire is caused by the design or neglect of such owner or owners:—*Provided*, That nothing in this act contained, shall prevent the parties from making such contract as they please, extending or limiting the liability of the ship-owners.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, If any shipper or shippers of platina, gold, gold dust, silver, bullion, or other precious metals, coins, jewelry, bills of any bank or public body, diamonds or other precious stones, shall lade the same on board any ship or vessel, without, at the time of such lading, giving to the master, agent, owner or owners of the ship or vessel receiving the same, a note in writing of the true character and value thereof, and have the same entered on the bill of lading therefor, the master and owner or owners of the said vessel shall not be liable, as carriers thereof, in any form or manner. Nor shall any such master or owners be liable for any such valuable goods beyond the value and according to the character thereof so notified and entered.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, The liability of the owner or owners of any ship or vessel for any embezzlement, loss, or destruction, by the master, officers, mariners, passengers, or any other person or persons, of any property, goods, or merchandise, shipped or put on board such ship or vessel, or for any loss, damage or injury by collision, or for any act, matter or thing, loss, damage or forfeiture, done, occasioned or incurred, without the privity or knowledge of such owner or owners, shall in no case exceed the amount or value of the interest of such owner or owners, respectively, in such ship or vessel, and her freight then pending.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, If any such embezzlement, loss or destruction shall be suffered by several freighters or owners of goods, wares or merchandise, or any property whatever on the same voyage, and the whole value of the ship or vessel, and her freight for the voyage, shall not be sufficient to make compensation to each of them, they shall receive compensation from the owner or owners of the ship or vessel in proportion to their respective losses; and for that purpose the said freighters and owners of the property, and the owner or owners of the ship or vessel, or any of them, may take the appropriate proceedings in any court, for the purpose of apportioning the sum for which the owner or owners of any ship or vessel may be liable amongst the parties entitled thereto.

And it shall be deemed a sufficient compliance with the requirements of this act, on the part of such owner or owners, if he or they shall transfer his or their interest in such vessel and freight, for the benefit of such claimants, to a trustee, to be appointed by any court of competent jurisdiction, to act as such trustee for the person or persons who may prove to be legally entitled thereto, from and after which transfer all claims and proceedings against the owner or owners shall cease.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, The charterer or charterers of any ship or vessel, in case he or they shall man, victual, and navigate such vessel at his or their own expense, or by his or their own procurement, shall be deemed the owner or owners of such vessel, within the meaning of this act; and such ship or vessel when so chartered shall be liable in the same manner as if navigated by the owner or owners thereof.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, Nothing in the preceding sections shall be construed to take away or affect the remedy to which any party may be entitled, against the master, officers, or mariners, for or on account of any embezzlement, injury, loss or destruction of goods, wares, merchandise, or other property, put on board any ship or vessel, or on account of any negligence, fraud or other malversation of such master, officers, or mariners, respectively, nor shall anything herein contained lessen or take away any responsibility to which any master or mariner of any ship or vessel may now by law be liable, notwithstanding such master or mariner may be an owner or part owner of the ship or vessel.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, Any person or persons shipping oil or vitriol, unslaked lime, inflammable matches, or gunpowder, in a ship or vessel taking cargo for divers persons on freight, without delivering at the time of shipment, a note in writing, expressing the nature and character of such merchandise, to the master, mate, officer, or person in charge of the lading of the ship or vessel, shall forfeit to the United States one thousand dollars.

This act shall not apply to the owner or owners of any canal boat, barge or lighter, or to any vessel of any description whatsoever used in river or inland navigation.

OFFICIAL CIRCULARS TO THE CREDITORS OF TEXAS, ISSUED FROM THE UNITED STATES TREASURY.

Treasury Department, March 31, 1850.

SINCE the publication of the notice of the 22d instant, to the creditors of Texas, who hold evidences of debt for which duties on imports were specially pledged by the late Republic, the letters of inquiry which have been addressed to the Department on the subject have been so numerous, and the object of that notice and the provisions of the law of Congress granting ten millions of stock to Texas, being so generally misunderstood by the creditors, that the Department deems it advisable to issue the present Circular for the more particular information of the claimants.

The general impression of the writers of the letters thus received appears to be that this Department will pay from the reserved five millions,

the amount due to those creditors who hold that portion of the debt for which the duties on imports were pledged, after they have signed and filed their release of the United States; instead of which, so soon as all such creditors have executed the releases aforesaid, the reserved five millions are then to be issued to *Texas*, when all further action by this Department respecting it will cease, and the creditors are to look to *Texas* for the settlement of their respective claims, as will be seen by the following conditions on which the stock is to be issued, which will be found in the first section of the act of Sept. 9, 1850, usually known as the Boundary Law.

"*Fourth.* The United States in consideration of said establishment of boundaries, cession of claim to territory, and relinquishment of claims, will pay to the State of *Texas* the sum of ten millions of dollars, in a stock bearing five per cent. interest, and redeemable at the end of fourteen years—the interest payable half yearly at the Treasury of the United States.

"*Fifth.* Immediately after the President of the U. S. shall have been furnished with an authentic copy of the act of the General Assembly of *Texas*, accepting these propositions, he shall cause the stock to be issued in favor of the State of *Texas*, as provided for in the fourth article of this agreement: *Provided, also,* That no more than five millions of said stock shall be issued until the creditors of the State holding bonds and other certificates of stock of *Texas* for which duties on imports were specially pledged, shall first file at the Treasury of the United States, releases of all claims against the United States for or on account of said bonds or certificates, in such form as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and approved by the President of the United States."

In order to obtain full information on the subject, the Department has called upon the authorities of *Texas* to furnish it with authenticated copies of all the laws respecting the debt; specimens of all the different evidences of debt originally issued by the Republic or renewed by the State, whether in the shape of certificates of stock, bonds, Treasury notes, or otherwise; and a certified list of the creditors, with their names, residences, &c., so far as they can be ascertained. These documents will enable the Department to ascertain what portion of the debt comes under the class for which the five millions of stock is to be reserved; and, by comparing the names and amount for which releases may be filed with the list which is to be furnished by *Texas*, the Department will be able to determine when the whole of them have been thus presented, so that it can issue the reserved five millions of stock to the State.

Until the information thus required of *Texas* has been received, the Department will be unable to determine as to the amount of the debt which will be applicable to the reserved stock; and, in the meantime, it will rest with the creditors themselves to decide whether the evidences of the debt which they may respectively hold, in whatever form these evidences may exist, come within the description alluded to, and to file their claims and releases accordingly as the Department at present is not prepared to give any opinion on that point.

In case claims are filed for a larger amount, or for different kinds of

debt, which the holders may think are applicable to the reserved five millions, but which may not be included in the list to be furnished by Texas as coming within that particular class of the debt, such increased amount or such other species of debt, thus filed, will be submitted to the authorities of Texas for further information, and for their views respecting it. The present object of the Department is to obtain from Texas and her creditors, respectively, statements on the subject of this description of claims, which statements shall or may, by further explanations, be made to harmonize, so as to enable it to act advisedly in issuing to the former the reserved five millions.

For further information as to the views of the Department in connection with this subject, the creditors are referred to the annexed correspondence between it and the Comptroller of Texas.

WM. L. HODGE,

Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

All the material matters of inquiry in the correspondence alluded to, are made sufficiently apparent in the subjoined response of the Secretary of the Treasury.

Treasury Department, Feb. 12, 1851.

SIR: I acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 30th ultimo, propounding certain queries in connection with the debt of Texas, and the five millions of stock reserved by the Texas boundary act 9th September, 1850, until certain creditors of Texas have filed a full and complete release of the United States, and have the honor to state—

To your first query, "What rule will the Government adopt in order to arrive at a knowledge of that portion of the debt of Texas for which duties on imposts were specially pledged, in contradistinction to the residue of her debts?" the Department replies that it will require authenticated copies of every law of the Republic or State of Texas creating or authorizing the different issues of her debt, as well as all laws in any way bearing upon or relating to said debt; also, an authenticated facsimile copy of each of the different certificates of stock, bonds, treasury notes, certificates of record, or other evidences of debt which have been issued by Texas.

To the second query, "What plan will be adopted to ascertain the number of creditors of the description alluded to, so as to know when all of the releases referred to in the act have been filed?" the Department replies, that the documents alluded to in the preceding answer to the first query, it is presumed, will show what portion of the debt will be applicable to the reserved five millions, and when that is ascertained it will be required that the whole amount of it should be released to the United States before the reserved stock can be handed over to Texas. The Department considers that public notice should be given, in some of the leading papers of Texas and of the principal cities of the Union, to all holders of such claims, to present and file them at the Department, and it will rest with Congress to fix the period after which such claims shall be no longer admitted.

To the third query, "How is it proposed to ascertain the amount actu-

ally due from the State to each of said creditors?" the Department replies, that when it is in possession of all the facts connected with the creation and present state of the debt of Texas, which will be furnished by the documents alluded to in the preceding answers, it will proceed on the data thus furnished, and what can be procured from other sources, to determine the amount of the debt to which the reserved five millions will be applicable.

To the fourth query, "If upon examination it be found that the debt for which impost duties were specially pledged does not amount to the five millions of dollars, which is authorized by the act of Congress to be retained for the payment of such debt, will not the stock, over and above that necessary to discharge this character of indebtedness, be delivered to Texas so soon as that fact can be ascertained?" the Department replies, that it could not give up any portion of the reserved stock until all the claims alluded to in the boundary act of 9th September, 1850, are first relinquished to the United States, whether the amount of them shall be more or less than the five millions.

To the fifth query, "Should Texas think it proper to pay any portion of her debt for which impost duties were specifically pledged, out of the five millions of stock which by her acceptance of the proposition she becomes in the immediate possession of, would not a corresponding amount of stock of the retained five millions be delivered to Texas on her filing the proper releases from the original holders of said debt?" the Department replies, that the same answer must be given as to the last query, as in its opinion the terms of the law will not authorize it to give up any portion of the five millions until all the claims are released as against the United States, and the payment of a portion of those claims by Texas would be only a partial and not an entire discharge, and that Texas could claim no privilege for priority of settlement of those claims which was not enjoyed by the previous individual holders of them.

To the sixth query, "From what date will the bonds of certificates of stock bear interest?" It is considered that, by a fair construction of the act of Congress, Texas is entitled to have interest from the 25th November, 1850, that being the day on which the contract was consummated on her part by a transfer of the territory to the United States. "Will not the interest upon the entire ten millions be paid semi-annually as it becomes due, although the stock for a portion of the principal may be retained by the United States?" the Department replies, that the certificates of stock will bear interest from the 1st of January, 1851, and for a period of fourteen years from that date, but no possible construction of the law, in the opinion of the Department, will authorize the interest to commence from the 20th November. The notice of the acceptance of the law was given by Texas on the 12th December, and from that period at the utmost, could interest be possibly claimed, but in that case it must cease on the same day in 1864; but it is considered that in giving the full fourteen years' interest from 1st January, 1851, though it commences a few days later than the actual date of the special notice, it is a virtual compliance with the law.

In reply to the remaining portion of your letter I would state that the

original evidences of debt should be filed together with the releases, and left in the Department, and the authorities of Texas should also furnish a full and detailed statement of all the outstanding evidences of debt as they now exist, with the dates, numbers, and amount of each, and the names of all the claimants and their residences, so far as they can be ascertained.

No interest can be paid on the stock until after it passes out of the control of the Department; but, as previously stated, the interest will commence from 1st January, 1851. The Department will cheerfully issue the certificates of stock in such form and in such amounts as may be most advantageous for Texas, and the certificates which have been prepared are in amounts of 100, 500, 1,000, and 5,000 dollars, without coupons, and \$1,000 with coupons—the former, which are transferable only on the books of the Treasury, are most desired by holders in the United States; and the latter, which are payable to bearer, and transferred by delivery, are in request for foreign holders. Previous experience has shown that certificates in sums of \$1,000 are most desirable for this latter purpose.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

THOS. CORWIN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

James B. Shaw, Esq.,

Comptroller of Public Accounts, State of Texas.

Circular of the Secretary of the Treasury respecting Mr. Hunter's Bill.

Treasury Department, }
Washington, March 27, 1851. }

THE following instructions are issued for the strict observance and government of the respective officers of the Customs, in carrying into effect the provisions of the annexed act of Congress, approved 3d March, 1851, entitled "An act to amend the act regulating the appraisement of imported merchandise, and for other purposes," which takes effect on and after the 1st day of April next.

It will be perceived on examination of this act, that it fixes the period of exportation to the United States, as the time when the actual market value or wholesale price of any goods, wares or merchandise, in the principal markets of the country from which the same shall have been imported into the United States, is to be appraised, estimated and ascertained. This provision consequently supersedes and abrogates so much of the provisions of the sixteenth section of the tariff act of the 30th of August, 1842, as requires the market value, or wholesale price, to be appraised, estimated and ascertained at the time when the goods were purchased. The exportation contemplated by the act is not deemed to apply exclusively to goods laden on board a vessel at a shipping port in the country of which the goods may be the growth, production or manufacture, but likewise applies to any goods exported from an interior country remote from the seaboard, having no shipping port, being *bona fide* destined, in the regular course of trade, for shipment to some owner, con-

signee, or agent, residing in the United States, of which satisfactory proof must be produced at the time of entry. For example, goods thus exported from Switzerland, being of the origin of that country, which can only be, or most usually are, exported through the seaports of France, or goods from Saxony or other interior German possessions, which must be, or most usually are, conveyed to a seaport for exportation to the United States—in these and analogous cases, the exportation to the United States may be deemed to commence at the period when the goods leave the country of their production or origin, and the true market value in the principal markets of said country is to be ascertained and appraised; to which is to be added, as dutiable charges, the cost of transportation to the port of shipment, with the expenses thereat until the goods are actually laden on board the vessel in which they may be shipped to the United States. Where goods are shipped directly from the country of their origin, the bill of lading will ordinarily establish the period of exportation, and in the other cases referred to, the authenticity of the invoice by consular certificate, or in the absence of such proof, other evidence satisfactory to the United States appraisers, may be taken to fix said period. Where goods have not been actually purchased, the invoice must exhibit the actual market value, or wholesale price, at the period of exportation, with all charges included, in lieu of such value at time and place of procurement or manufacture, as required by the eighth section of the act of March 1st, 1823, and the oath required to be taken on entry may be so modified as to meet the case. When goods have been actually purchased, the invoice must, as heretofore, exhibit the true cost of the goods; and the owner, consignee, or agent, will still retain the privilege allowed by the eighth section of the tariff act of the 30th July, 1846, of adding to the entry so as to raise the cost of value given in the invoice to the true market value or wholesale price of the goods at the period of exportation, and will moreover become subject to the other provisions of said section. The actual market value or wholesale price at the period of exportation to the United States having been appraised, estimated, and ascertained, upon the principles before stated, it becomes requisite to determine and fix the true dutiable value at the port where the goods may be entered and upon which the duties are to be assessed. The law enjoins that there shall be added thereto all costs and charges except insurance, and including, in every case, a charge for commissions, at the usual rates. These charges are as follows, to wit:—

First—They must include purchasing, carriage, bleaching, dyeing, dressing, finishing, putting up and packing together, with the value of the sack, package, box, crate, hogshead, barrel, bale, cask, case, and covering of all kinds, bottles, jars, vessels and demijohns.

Second—Commissions at the usual rate; but in no case less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and where there is a distinct brokerage, or where brokerage is a usual charge at the place of shipment or purchase, that to be added likewise.

Third.—Export duties, cost of placing cargoes on board ship, including drayage, labor, bill of lading, lighterage, town dues, and shipping charges, dock or wharf dues, and all charges to place the article on shipboard, and

fire insurance, if effected for a period prior to the shipment of the goods to the United States. Discounts are never to be allowed in any case, except on articles where it has been the uniform and established usage heretofore, and never more than the actual discount positively known to the appraiser; but in no case to be allowed unless it is exhibited on the face of the invoice. Special attention is called to this item of discounts, as from information recently received by the Department, it is believed that numerous frauds have been practised on the revenue by excessive and unusual discounts being deducted on the invoices produced at the time of entry, and in no case are they to be allowed, except such per centage as may be ascertained to be customary on the different articles, respectively, at the places of purchase or shipment. Marine insurance is exempted by law.

Inquiry having been made whether freight from the country or place of exportation to the United States is embraced among the dutiable charges, it becomes proper to remark that, under no former revenue or tariff act has such freight ever been deemed a dutiable charge; but, on the contrary, it has uniformly been decided by the Department to be exempt therefrom. If the Department were now called upon to give a construction to the phraseology of the present law, as regards this point, without reference to the wording of previous tariff acts, or to the uniform practice of the Department on the subject, it might come to a different conclusion; but the language of the act of the 30th August, 1842, as regards the items of charges which are to form a portion of the dutiable value of goods, is precisely similar to that of the present law, and the construction put upon the former having been that freight from the port of shipment to the port of importation, does not form a charge subject to duty, the Department, after very full and mature consideration, does not feel authorized now to change that construction, especially in the absence of any explicit legal designation of freight as a dutiable item; presuming that as Congress was, of course, aware of the long practice of the Department on the subject, its views would have been clearly expressed respecting it, had the Legislature intended that the change should be introduced of including freight as one of the charges on which duty was to be levied. In addition to the construction thus put upon the tariff act of 1842, and uniformly acted upon since that time, the records of the Department show that the question has been frequently brought to its attention, as far back as 1799, under statutes of similar import to the present one, and extending through all the subsequent years down to the present time; and its invariable decision has been, that freight to the port of importation was not an item subject to duty.

It will be seen that the second section of the act gives full force and validity to the certificate of any one of the United States Appraisers, to establish the appraisement of any goods, wares and merchandise, required by existing laws, at ports where there are United States Appraisers; and at ports where no such Appraisers exist, similar validity is given to the certificate of appraisement issued by the Revenue officer to whom is committed the estimating and collection of duties, as enjoined by the twenty-second section of the tariff of 30th August, 1842. The law is deemed to refer to the certificate of a principal Appraiser, or one of the Appraisers at

large, appointed under the third section of the act hereto annexed, and not of an assistant Appraiser. Although the certificate before referred to is made conclusive evidence of an appraisement, yet it is to be distinctly understood that the law does not contemplate any relaxation or change in respect to the due inspection, examination, and other necessary acts required of the Appraisers in making appraisement in pursuance of existing laws and regulations.

The regulations respecting the duties of the Appraisers at large, appointed under the third section of this act, will form the subject of a separate circular of instructions.

WM. L. HODGE,

Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

INDEX TO VOL. VI.

- Agriculture of United States, 286-296.
 Africa, war in, 161.
 discovery in, 185.
 Algeria, proceedings in, 127.
 Alpha Centauri, parallax of, 253.
 Amazons, defeat of, 172.
 American Association meeting, 263.
 Board of Missions, 379.
 Apache Indians, 33.
 Arbuckle, Gen., obituary of, 233.
 Argentine Republic, History, 106.
 Armory at Springfield, Mass., 407.
 Assyrian Antiquities, 267.
 Asteroid, new one discovered, 253.
 Astronomical telegraph, 271.
 Astronomy, progress of, 415.
 Audubon, J. J., obituary, 219.
 Aurora borealis, nature of, 252.
 Australia, its present state, 463.
 Austria, history, 138.

 Baldwin, Judge, obituary, 232.
 Baillie, Joanna, obituary, 239.
 Barron, Commodore, obituary, 228.
 Beck, Dr. J. B., obituary, 235.
 Bexley, Lord, obituary, 235.
 Bible Societies, origin of, 444.
 American, 373.
 American and Foreign, 373.
 British and Foreign, 381.
 Blacksmith, John, obituary, 225.
 Bocarmé Trial, 188.
 Boston, statistics of, 322.
 slave rescue, 22.
 documents regarding, 511.
 Bovill's patent mill, 270.
 Bounty land law, letter on, 535.
 Brady, Gen., obituary, 227.
 Brains, weights and sizes of, 401.
 Brazil, history, 106.

 Britain, history, 112.
 factories, 336.
 cotton statistics, 342.
 general statistics, 343.
 income and expenditure, 345.
 Brooke, Judge, obituary, 215.
 Brooke, General, obituary, 215.
 Bullard, Judge, obituary, 228.

 Cahal, Chancellor, obituary, 226.
 California, Indian troubles, 30.
 history, 40.
 land titles, 44.
 bills and debates thereon, 50.
 Canada, its trade in 1850, 333.
 West, free schools in, 387.
 Canal, proposed Atlantic and Pacific, 507.
 Canary Isles, plague in, 205.
 Castings, statistics of, 301.
 Catholic agitation in Britain, 112.
 Cave, discovery of, 176.
 Census of U. S., abstract of, 275.
 its plan, 288.
 Chartists, programme of their views, 572.
 Chili, history, 110.
 Chinese printing, 269, 475.
 Choctaws, their condition, 175.
 Christian Union statistics, 378.
 Circassia, war in, 155.
 Clay, Henry, on compromise, 21.
 Codrington, Sir E., obituary, 249.
 Colton, Rev. W., obituary, 208.
 Commerce of Britain and U. S., 332.
 Compromise proceedings, 11.
 Consumption, effects of climate, 476.
 Corn trade of Britain, 334.
 Cottenham, Lord, obituary, 244.
 Cotton manufactures of U. S., 298.
 exports of, since 1821, 307.
 Counterfeiting, extensive case, 173.

- Course of winds, 251.
 Cretinism, cause of, 268.
 Crowninshield, B. W., obituary, 213.
 Cuba, proceedings in U. S., 94.
 in the island, 102.
 President's proclamation, 538.
 Cunningham, J. D., obituary, 241

 Dalyell, Sir J. G., obituary, 247.
 Davezac, Major, obituary, 213.
 Davies, T. S., obituary, 236.
 Dead Sea, water of, 254.
 Dresden conference, 132.
 Dress, historical sketch of, 439.
 Duration of Life in Europe, 309.

 Earthquake in Chili, 179.
 East India Co. statistics, 346.
 Eccleston, Archbp., obituary, 223.
 Egypt, history, 157.
 Electro-magnetic locomotion, 263.
 Erie railroad, opening of, 185.
 Escapes extraordinary, 183, 205.
 Essay on Homer, 472.
 Exports of U. S. for 1850, 305.

 Factories of Britain, 336.
 Financial condition of the States, 355.
 Florida Indians, 525.
 Foucault's pendulum experiments, 262.
 France, history, 123.

 Germany, history, 129.
 Glass water-pipes, 271.
 Goitre, cause of, 268.
 Gold, estimate of its production, 358.
 Great cave in Indiana, 479.
 Greece, history, 160.
 Growth of north-western states, 304.
 Guano, 447.
 Guatemala, history, 101.

 Haldane, James A., obituary, 245.
 Harvard University, change at, 261.
 Hayti, history, 104.
 Hermit woman of Alleghanies, 450.
 Hill, Isaac, obituary, 220.
 T. W., obituary, 248.
 Hindostan, ethnology of, 246.
 Historical sketch of dress, 439.
 Hoboken, great riot at, 188.
 Hodgson, Dr. W., obituary, 241.
 Holstein troubles settled, 129.
 Home Missionary Society, 374.
 Homer, Essay on, 472.
 Hone, Philip, obituary, 229.
 Hooker, Richard, sketch of, 501.
 Hughes, Archbp., dinner to, 197.
 Hungarian exiles, 97, 157.

 Imports into New York, 320.
 Improvement of propellers, 265.
 Indians, depredations of, 29.
 defects of U. S. policy, 36.
 Indiana, great cave in, 479.
 Iron, statistics of, 300-2.
 Interments, premature, 401.
 Italy, history, 140.
 cruelties in, 194.

 Jackson on internal improvements, 88.
 Jamaica, history, 103.
 Japan, condition of, 429.
 Jarvis, Rev. Dr., obituary, 222.
 Jews in China, 481.
 Jubilee of Gospel Propag. Society, 199.
 Junot, N., obituary, 250.

 Kaufman, D. S., obituary, 212.

 Langdale, Lord, obituary, 243.
 Latin hymn, 504.
 Lea, Col. Luke, obituary, 234.
 Leap, remarkable, 204.
 Liberia, refutation of charges against, 541.
 Libraries of the U. S., 388.
 Life, duration of, in Europe, 399.
 Liquors, statistics of, in U. S., 303.
 Lumber trade with Canada, 312.

 Madrid riot, 187.
 Magnetic telegraph, 313.
 Maine liquor law, 193.
 Manufactures of United States, 286.
 Mariposa Indians, 167.
 Maryland, new constitution, 93.
 Martineau, Miss, become atheist, 256.
 McDonald, Alexander, obituary, 237.
 McDuffie, George, obituary, 216.
 Melville, Lord, obituary, 248.
 Mesmerism, revival of, 254.
 Mexico, history, 98.
 Mexican mines, 368.
 Michigan conspiracy, 180.
 Migration of plants, 456.
 Military Hospital act, 539.
 Miller's Red Sandstone, 264.
 Mine under the Sea, 478.
 Mineral discoveries, 167, 169, 183.
 Missionary Societies, statistics of, 372.
 Moncrieff, Lord, obituary, 243.
 Moorish execution, 454.
 Morison, Gen., obituary, 246.
 Mormons, their condition, 39.
 in Beaver Island, 196.
 Mortality in U. S., 283.
 in Europe, 398.
 Morton, Dr. S. G., obituary, 231.
 Murder, remarkable case, 177.

- Napier's Farewell Order, 579.
 Naples, history, 146.
 New York, Governor on compromise, 14.
 canal bill, 90.
 statistics, 314.
 common schools of New York City, 384.
 code, Judges opinion of, 564.
 newspapers, 321.
 Newton, Letters of, 257.
 Nicaragua, history, 101.
 Nile, bridging of, 269.
 Noah, Major, obituary, 218.
 North Carolina on compromise, 16.
 North-western states, growth of, 304.
 Northampton, Marquis of, obituary, 236.

 Obituary notices, American, 207.
 Foreign, 235.
 Ocean steamers, report on, 518.
 Orsted, H. C., obituary, 241.
 Ohio constitution amended, 92.
 Oregon, proceedings in, 34.
 Ossian's address to the sun, 453.

 Pardoning power, Prof. Lieber on, 540.
 Paris Missionary Society, 383.
 dead-house, 400.
 Penn, Dixon's life of, 257.
 Pennsylvania iron trade, 326.
 Peru, history,
 Phillips, R., obituary, 246.
 Physical Geography, American work on, 260.
 Pig iron, statistics of, 300.
 Plants, their growth in gases, 273
 their migrations, 456.
 Population of U. S., 294.
 Port-dues in Britain, 527.
 Portugal, history, 148.
 Post-office of Britain, 349.
 Precious metals in England, 359.
 Presidents of the U. S., 404.
 Press of United States, 287.
 Proceedings in Oregon, 34.
 Propellers, improvement of, 265.
 Prussia, history, 135.
 Public lands, Congressional proceedings, 76.

 Railroads in U. S., 311.
 in Great Britain, 346.
 Remarkable leap, 204.
 Report on ocean steamers, 518.
 River and harbor bill.
 Roberts, E. J., obituary, 229.
 Rome, its population, 144.
 Roman states, history, 143.
 Rosa, John Manuel, 107.

 Ross, Dr. E. C., obituary, 232.
 Russia, history, 153.
 population, 154.
 sketch of, 437.

 Salt and Salt Lakes, their origin, 252.
 San Francisco, great fire, 184.
 steamboats, 329.
 Sandwich Islands, 110.
 San Salvador, history, 101.
 Sardinia, history, 140.
 Schumacher, Fred., obituary, 235.
 Sheffield steel manufactures, 342.
 Shiel, R. L., obituary, 246.
 Ship-building in U. S., 313.
 in New York, 314.
 Ship-owners, U. S. act regarding, 584.
 Skinner, John H., obituary, 218.
 Slave-trade on Guinea coast, 200.
 Smith, Dr. Azariah, obituary, 250.
 Dr. J. Pye, obituary, 238.
 Captain John, 489.
 Sounding instrument, 274.
 Soundings, deep sea, 273.
 Southern Rights Association, address, 566.
 Southey, the poet, 483.
 Spain, history, 146.
 Spontaneous combustion, instance, 202.
 Statistics of Liquors in U. S., 303.
 Steamers in California, 330.
 St. Peter's chair, 257.
 Sugar culture in Louisiana, 324.
 Suicides in France, 400.
 Suloo, destruction of, 170.
 Surnames, statistics of, 398.
 Switzerland, history, 151.

 Tartary, travels in, 259.
 Tea, exports from Hong-kong, 352.
 trade of Shanghai, 349.
 Temperance Union, American, 376.
 National, 377.
 Texas, circular to creditors, 585.
 Timber on public lands, 533.
 Tract Society, American, 375.
 Turkey, history, 155.
 Turkish Academy of Sciences, 267.
 envoy, departure of from U.S. 97.

 Uminski, Gen., obituary, 249.
 United States, history, 11.
 condition of territories, 39.
 coast survey, 261.
 census, 275.
 areas and population, 281, 292.
 population of cities, 295.
 debt of, 353.
 expenses of courts, 356.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>United States, receipts from 1789 to 1850, 362.
 expenditures do. 364.
 appropriations do. 366.
 army, 392.
 militia, 393.
 navy, 394.
 Congress, 397.
 governments of states, 397.
 press of, 286.</p> <p>Victoria, Queen, parliamentary speech, 571.</p> <p>Virginia, views of compromise, 16, 18.
 constitutional convention, 93.</p> | <p>Watts, Judge, obituary, 207.</p> <p>Waves, action of, 272.</p> <p>Webster, D., on compromise, 20.
 Hulsemann correspondence, 96, 524.</p> <p>Westminster Review, sale of, 260.</p> <p>Winds, course of, 251.
 Lieut. Maury's notice, 545.</p> <p>Whale-fishery for 1850, 308.</p> <p>Wollstoncraft, Mary, obituary, 235.</p> <p>Woman's rights, illustration of, 165.
 convention, 191.</p> <p>Wombwell, Geo., obituary, 235.</p> <p>Woollen manufactures in U. S., 290.</p> <p>World's Fair, account of, 117.</p> |
|---|---|

STRYKER'S AMERICAN REGISTER AND MAGAZINE.

CONDUCTED BY JAMES STRYKER.

THIS work contains a continuous historical register, foreign and domestic, with a chronicle of incidents and independent events; a semi-annual obituary, with biographical notices of distinguished persons; statistical tables and articles; a large collection of official papers and other valuable documents; original contributions to science and literature; notices of books; interesting miscellaneous selections, &c. The historical register embodies a synopsis of congressional proceedings and debates.—Price five dollars per annum.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

[From Hon. J. C. SPENCER.]

“The original matter of the *Register* is able and interesting, and the selected articles are precisely such as should be found in such a work. It has already become a reservoir of important contributions to the history, constitutional jurisprudence, and commercial and social progress of the country, and my prediction will soon be verified, ‘that it will be indispensable to every library.’ To the libraries of the common school districts, I know of no work that will be equally interesting or useful. Its narrative of current events, its collection of important documents in our history, and its varied miscellaneous contributions upon subjects of immediate interest, give it a zest equal to that of a biography, while its facts and chronicles render it of great value for purposes of reference.”

[From MILLARD FILLMORE, President of the United States.]

“I unite most cordially with Mr. Spencer in recommending the work.”

[From Hon. JOHN A. DIX.]

“I take pleasure in expressing my concurrence with Hon. John C. Spencer, in the favorable opinion he entertains of the *American Register*. I consider the statistical information it contains of great value. Indeed I have taken great pleasure in the examination of the whole volume. I have not only found it interesting, but highly instructive.”

[From the REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK.]

“At a meeting of the Regents of the University, held March 28, 1850, it was unanimously *Resolved*, That *Stryker's American Register and Magazine* be placed on the list of books recommended to be purchased by Academies for their libraries. T. ROMEYN BECK, *Secretary*.”

[From HORACE BINNEY, Esq., of Philadelphia.]

"The plan is excellent; and the sections which have already appeared give adequate proof of the ability, candor, research, and taste which are applied to all its parts. It must become, in time, a treasury of valuable facts, which, unless exhibited and preserved in this connection, will hardly be recalled and put together again by any degree of labor."

[From REV. DR. BAIRD.]

"It is superior to the celebrated *British Annual Register*, because it gives, in addition to a well-digested record of the most important events, a vast amount of statistical matter, of great importance to all well-informed men."

[From HON. HAMILTON FISH.]

"I take great pleasure in saying that, having been a subscriber and reader of this Magazine since its first issue, I consider it one of the most useful and interesting works of the kind that has come under my observation, and I think that its ability and value must commend it to public favor."

[From DR. CHARLES ANTHON, of Columbia College.]

"Judge Stryker's Register is, in my opinion, a most excellent work, and an honor to American literature."

[From HON. B. F. BUTLER.]

"I wish it were in my power to do something to procure for the *American Register and Magazine* a public patronage proportionate to its real merits. Each volume of the work displays great diligence and care, and contains a large amount of information, historical and statistical, of permanent value. The last volumes (the 4th and 5th) are, I think, superior to their predecessors in the attractiveness and variety of their contents. I cannot sufficiently praise the patient labor bestowed on every part of the work."

[From HON. LUTHER BRADISH.]

"I have been long acquainted with the character of Judge Stryker's *American Register*, having been one of its original subscribers; and whether regard be had to the matter it contains, or to the ability with which that matter is presented, I consider it one of the best sustained and most useful of American periodicals."

Similar testimonials, in regard to the excellence and value of the work, have been received from the following distinguished gentlemen:—Hon. LEWIS CASS, Hon. THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN, Hon. WM. H. SEWARD, Dr. J. W. FRANCIS, Ex-Gov. P. D. VROOM, Hon. ALBERT H. TRACY, Hon. ABBOTT LAWRENCE, CHARLES G. LORING, Esq., Hon. J. K. KANE, Dr. MÜTTER, J. R. TYSON, Esq., President WAYLAFF, Hon. C. MORGAN, Dr. JOSEPH HENRY, of the Smithsonian Institute, Dr. T. B. BECK, H. R. SCHOOLCRAFT, L.L.D., Hon. R. H. GILLET, Gen. P. M. WETMORE, Judge EDMONDS, Recorder TALLMADGE, and others.

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

"The last volume of this excellent work, the *American Register*, has just reached us. The labor of its editor must have been great and untiring to bring together, in so condensed a form, a collection of intelligence so complete and valuable. The only work of its kind in the United States, it deserves a general circulation.

"Judge Stryker enjoyed, for many years, in this State, a reputation for ability and learning, and we know of no one more competent to the task of compiling the history of the passing period, in a form at once compendious and comprehensive, with impartiality and judgment."—*N. Y. Journal of Commerce*.

"We cannot but congratulate the statesman, political economist, and lovers of historical record and sound information of every class, that we have, at length, among our periodicals one which is eminently suited to its design, and worthy of being preserved in their libraries. Such a work has long been deemed a *desideratum*."—*Washington Union*.

"It is a work of very permanent value—one which supplies a lack long felt, and which ought, therefore, to be well sustained. It is the only work in the country which preserves, in a convenient form and accessible shape, official documents, the true material of history, and every man, in any way connected with public life, finds it indispensable to have them constantly within reach. This is the only work on which reliance for that purpose can be placed."—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer*.

"Many attempts have been made, and much labor and money have been devoted to the permanent establishment of such a Register. Heretofore something was lacking; but Judge Stryker has produced precisely what was wanted, and we hope he will be sustained."—*Albany Eve. Jour.*

"This, our readers probably well know, is a work of high and decided value. In all the characteristics of a well-arranged and well-digested record of passing events, as well as a repository of valuable statistical facts, for the present or the future, the *American Register* has no equal in this country, and has none in any quarter of the globe, unless it be the celebrated *British Annual Register*, of Edmund Burke. Judge Stryker has conducted the work, from the outset, with an ability, impartiality, and fidelity that reflects the highest credit upon his talents and assiduous application to the labor which the plan and nature of such a work demand."—*Albany Argus*.

"The *American Register* has just been issued by its enterprising editor, Judge Stryker. It is the most widely useful and valuable periodical published in this country—is unique in its design, and fully realizes the purposes of its editor. It is conducted with singular industry, vigilance, and correctness, and can be earnestly recommended to those who wish for accurate and copious information on the various subjects which come within its range, as without a rival in our periodical literature."—*New York Tribune*.

"No body of historic materials has ever proved more useful in its day than the famous '*Annual Register*,' founded by Edmund Burke—a great

repository of all important facts of the times, and of such public documents as were either necessary for their elucidation, or offered of themselves useful information of the progress of things throughout the world. Such a continuous publication for this continent had become an urgent want, and the work of Judge Stryker, so far as we can judge, seems about to supply it."—*National Int.*

"*Stryker's American Register* is just published, and shows increased skill in collecting and digesting the multifarious information which gives such a work its value. It is issued under the superintendence of Judge Stryker, well known as a former resident of this State, and who gives evidence of his ability to perform his task to the public acceptance. An annual register like this, is an indispensable work in the library of all who desire to keep themselves well acquainted with the history of the times. It is of great value both as a work of instruction and reference.—*New York Evening Post.*

"The *Register* is issued by Judge Stryker, and is, in our view, invaluable to every statesman, politician, merchant, financier, and statistician in the country. It abounds with facts, always reliable, and gleaned from the most authentic sources.

"A work like this has long been needed. Some of the most distinguished men in the country have commended it in the warmest manner. The editor is at once able, discriminating, and indefatigable. Such a treasury of valuable facts cannot be too liberally patronized."—*Penn. Inq.*

"A VALUABLE WORK.—Almost every person at all connected with the active movements of the time, experiences the want of a regular, systematic collection of the *historical documents* of the day.

"*Stryker's American Register and Magazine* is published to meet this want. It is so far superior to anything else of the kind, and so really useful, that we deem it a public service to commend it to attention and support. It is conducted by Judge Stryker, and is published in a handsome bound volume semi-annually.

"Very few persons, even of those who need such a work most, give especial attention to its support. We beg them to examine this work, and to subscribe for it if possible; for every subscription aids in its circulation and in its permanent establishment."—*New York Daily Times.*

"Such a publication was a desideratum, as it combines, with a register of historical events, statistical information, an account of the developments of agricultural, manufacturing and mechanical industry, and a journal of letters, science, and the arts.

"This is an age in which instruction is based upon facts, instead of hypothesis, and truth is sought by experiment, demonstration, or exact induction instead of chimerical assumptions and bold assertions. Now, results are demanded in verification of theories.

"*Stryker's American Register* is, therefore, an invaluable acquisition; for it is, to a very considerable extent, an encyclopedia of instruction, annually revised, and thus presents the discoveries, improvements, and general march of the human race, in all quarters of the globe, in the honorable career of an exalted civilization."—*Boston Courier.*

